

Status, Wellbeing, and Behavior at Work or in College

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Abstract

In this paper, we studied what predicts “good” and “bad” behavior and the relationship between these behaviors and two types of wellbeing. We developed our hypotheses based on social exchange theory and the wellbeing literature. We collected 1,250 responses from college students in Mexico, the Philippines, Romania, Russia, and U.S. and found that subjective wellbeing and employability explained “good” and “bad” behavior at work and in college, and also mediated the relationship between status and behavior at work. When students are currently happy (*e.g.*, subjective wellbeing) and feel that their future is promising (*e.g.*, their employability), they are more likely to demonstrate desirable citizenship behavior, low levels of deviant work behavior, and feel self-fulfilled (psychological wellbeing).

Key Words: status, subjective wellbeing, psychological wellbeing, deviant behavior, citizenship behavior, social exchange theory, employability

Declarations

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Introduction

In this paper, we examined two research questions: (1) To what extent is status related to “good” and “bad” behaviors at work/ in school? and, (2) what is the relationship, if any, between these behaviors and people’s wellbeing? To investigate these questions, we reviewed the literature on citizenship behavior, deviant behavior, status, and wellbeing, and developed hypotheses based on social exchange theory. We then collected data from college students at universities in five countries to test our hypotheses empirically.

Why did we investigate status, behavior, and wellbeing? To start, previous research has explained differences in certain behaviors due to socio-economic status (*e.g.*, Ahmad *et al.*, 2018). Bad behavior can occur anywhere. While our primary interest was an explanation of bad behavior at work or in college, we could not fail to note the recent rise of bad behavior on airplanes at the peak and the declining tail of the COVID-19 era. One explanation of the increase in bad behavior on airplanes was the degree to which differences in status were made salient to passengers. One reporter noted: “The presence of a first-class section made it 3.84 times more likely that someone in economy class would act out” (Mihm, 2021). When first class passengers were reminded of their status, their bad behavior also increased. We were therefore curious about the relationship between status and behavior at work and in college, and how wellbeing figured in that relationship.

This paper contributes to the literature in the following ways: (1) we applied a multidimensional view of social exchange constructs by including both positive and negative outcome variables; (2) we enhanced understanding of deviant behavior - a niche and underexplored variable of counterproductive behavior; (3) we integrated the happiness wellbeing with social exchange theory and suggested that when students are currently happy and feel that their future employment is promising, they are more likely to demonstrate socially desirable behavior, less likely to demonstrate deviant behavior, and feel fulfilled and happy regardless of their status.

Literature review

Social exchange theory

Social exchange theory has been contributed to by scholars from anthropology, psychology, sociology, economics, law, and management, among other disciplines. While there are different applications of the theory, there is a general consensus that social exchanges involve a series of interactions in which resources are exchanged. These interactions generate interdependent obligations (Blau, 1968; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005).

Homans (1958), drawing on both sociology and economics, proposed that the quality and type of exchange between two parties results from a cost benefit analysis that each party makes. And while there is certainly a rational and economic aspect to the exchange of resources, social exchange theory goes well beyond the material. Foa and Foa (1980) described six resources that may be exchanged: love, status, information, money, goods, and services. Both the workplace and the university are settings where significant human exchanges occur every day. In each, actors demonstrate behavior that generates obligations on the other party’s side. The behavior of one party, say a boss or team member, affects and is affected by the behavior of the other.

Under social exchange theory, norms guide the exchange. In the literature, these norms include reciprocity, fairness, rationality, altruism, and rivalry (Benedict 1946; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Curhan *et al.*, 2006; Meeker, 1971). Status consistency is another norm whereby benefits are allocated based on one’s status within a group. Status can be derived from political

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power or influence within the organization or society; prestige due to rank within an organization or profession, achievements or education; from wealth and financial security; and often from demographic or phenotypical characteristics (such as race, gender, height, weight, etc.) desirable within a given culture. Murdock (1968) has called status a human universal: status differentiation tends to occur in all groups. How a person interprets his/her status within the group can profoundly affect his/her motivation and work behavior (Destin *et al.*, 2017).

Blau (1964) pointed out that group social approval may also be a norm that shapes an exchange: "Common standards of fairness and justice ... have the result that a person's direct transactions with specific exchange partners also involve him in indirect transactions with other members of the community whose social approval for his fair and just dealings he earns or fails to earn." Cropanzano *et al.* (2017) expressed concerns about research employing a bipolar view of the social exchange: specifically, they noted that a low degree of counterproductive behavior does not necessarily mean a high degree of extra-role behavior. These two types of behaviors are related but separate. Cropanzano *et al.* (2017) believed that researchers have shown insufficient appreciation of the distinction between positive and negative social exchange constructs, and recommended future research to include both. Following this suggestion, we selected *citizenship behavior* and *deviant behavior* as outcome variables in this study. Both citizenship behavior and deviant behavior are active, behavioral responses in a social exchange (Bolin & Heatherly, 2001; Cropanzano *et al.*, 2017).

Behavior at work and in college

Citizenship behavior, for the purpose of this paper, includes behavior at work or in college that promotes goodness and is discretionary, without being formally or directly linked to a reward (Morrison, 1994; Organ, 1997; Paine & Organ, 2000). Organizational citizenship behavior, a well-established construct, has been defined as "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, 1997).

A meta-analytic study showed that attitudinal predictors (such as job attitudes and organizational commitment) were more robust than dispositional predictors (such as personality and demographic traits) toward explaining citizenship behavior (Organ & Ryan, 1995). More recently, researchers found consistent theoretical and empirical support for the relationship between attitudinal variables and citizenship behaviors (Ocampo *et al.*, 2018). For example, Chen and Chang (2012) found that, when they are confident about their competencies and talents, people are more likely to demonstrate prosocial and proactive behavior. Park *et al.* (2016) found that occupational self-efficacy mediated the relationship between work orientation of meaningfulness and citizenship behavior.

Employability is a variable that may well reflect the attitudinal, perceptual, and judgmental components of citizenship behavior predictors. Employability is the capability to fulfill work (Hillage & Pollard, 1998). In the literature, there is an on-going discussion if and/ or to what extent highly employable people benefit others (Guilbert *et al.*, 2016). Many researchers have found some positive association between employability and citizenship behavior (Pace *et al.*, 2021; Serim *et al.*, 2014; Stoffers *et al.*, 2019). It is worth noting that these empirical studies were mainly conducted in Europe with on-site employees. Other than the empirical evidence, we find theoretical alignment between employability and citizenship behavior. Employability includes three factors: personal adaptability, career identity, and social and human capital (Fugate *et al.*, 2004). Takeuchi *et al.* (2015) identified three motives behind citizenship behavior: prosocial

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values motives, concern motives, and impression management motives. The career identity component of employability can enhance the concern motives of citizenship behavior. Career identity corresponds to a person's answers to the questions, "who I am" and "whom do I want to be" in the career context. These answers motivate people to actively adapt to changes, opportunities, and environments (Ashforth, 2000) and furthermore make people pay attention to and care about their bigger environments (concern motives). According to Baard *et al.* (2014), personal adaptability suggests a willingness to change and meet expectations as well as to influence others' perceptions (*e.g.*, impression management). Social and human capital include not only individuals' knowledge, skill, ability but also their networking strength and quality (Abbasi *et al.*, 2014). At the influence of current social and human capital, people are more likely to value social impact, demonstrate prosocial characteristics, and conduct prosocial activities (prosocial values motives).

Citizenship behavior at work is a theoretically different construct than citizenship behavior in school. In practice, researchers have found very similar patterns of these two types of citizenship behavior. Both organizations and colleges are places with social exchanges. For example, Dipaola and Tschannen-Moran (2001) found that citizenship behavior in school enhances school climate. Somech and Ron (2007) empirically substantiated that perceived support enhances in-school citizenship behavior, which enhances positive affectivity and reduces negative affectivity. Bogler and Somech (2005) found that citizenship behavior in school facilitates the decision-making processes. Accordingly, we expect to find a positive relationship between employability and "good" (citizenship) behavior at work or school. Students about to enter the workplace are more or less employable; those with good prospects certainly would not want to jeopardize their situations and may want to protect their situation (and sometimes reputation) as being employable. Therefore, the higher a student's employability, the more one would expect citizenship behavior. We therefore hypothesize:

H1(a): Employability positively predicts citizenship behavior.

While not exactly opposite, citizenship behavior is generally considered to be highly positive behavior at work or school, while deviant behavior is generally considered to be negative (Cropanzano *et al.*, 2017). **Deviant behavior** is manifested in actions that challenges existing norms and may threaten other's wellbeing (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Yıldız & Alpan, 2015). Although Appelbaum *et al.* (2007) presented the differences between positive deviant behaviors and negative deviant behaviors, in this paper, we only considered deviant behavior as a negative social exchange construct. Deviant behavior and counterproductive behavior have been used interchangeably in many papers. Cropanzano *et al.* (2017) clarified the connections and differences between these two variables: counterproductive behavior is a broad family of negative behaviors that include but are not limited to deviant behavior. After going through the literature, we found that researchers have intensively studied counterproductive behavior and have assumed that these results worked for deviant behavior and/or have ignored the uniqueness of deviant behavior as the niche field of counterproductive behavior (Alias *et al.*, 2013; Bolin & Heatherly, 2001; Peterson, 2002). Some researchers have found positive or non-significant relations between employability-related constructs and counterproductive behavior through social learning (Imam & Chambel, 2020; Robinson & O'Leary-Kelly, 1998; Vardi & Kim, 2007; Vardi & Weitz, 2003). However, we expected to find a negative relation between employability and deviant behavior. In the literature, we found that self-control and social-control related variables are negatively

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associated with deviant behaviors (Hirschi & Gottfredson, 2017; Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990; Le Blanc, 2006); in other words, when students feel “in control” they are less likely to demonstrate deviant behavior. Personal adaptability, career identity, and social and human capital are main components of employability (Baard *et al.*, 2014; Fugate *et al.*, 2004). When students have adequate personal adaptability, clear career identify and sufficient social and human capital (high employability), they tend to feel that they are in control of themselves and the broad environment. These individuals are less likely to demonstrate deviant behaviors, which may change or ruin their current progress or situations. We therefore hypothesize:

H1(b): Employability negatively predicts deviant behavior.

Wellbeing at work or in college

Wellbeing is sometimes considered to be synonymous with happiness. In the literature, there are two main perspectives of happiness: eudemonic happiness and hedonic happiness. Eudemonic happiness focuses on human flourishing and full functioning (Ryan & Deci, 2001) and is called **psychological wellbeing** the literature. Psychological wellbeing includes self-acceptance, positive relations with other, autonomy, environmental mastery, purpose in life and personal growth (Ryff, 1989). Eudemonic happiness could be argued to be the consistent with Maslow’s (1943) highest level of human motivation.

Hedonic happiness is about maximizing pleasure and optimizing self-interest (Ryan & Deci, 2001), and it may include life satisfaction (Diener *et al.*, 1985) and positive affect (Watson *et al.*, 1988). Hedonic happiness corresponds to **subjective wellbeing** in the psychology literature. Subjective wellbeing is a construct about people’s evaluations of their experience and lives (Diener, 1994). These cognitive evaluations can be reflective and mainly include three dimensions: overall life satisfaction, positive affect and negative affect (Diener *et al.*, 2018). For years, researchers investigated subjective wellbeing and found its outcomes such as social relations, health, and societal benefits (Diener & Ryan, 2009). For example, Rego *et al.* (2010) found that affective wellbeing (the positive and negative affect of subjective wellbeing) leads to citizenship behavior. Lambert (2010) and Meynhardt *et al.* (2020) got similar results that life satisfaction (one component of subjective wellbeing) is positively associated with citizenship behavior.

Deviant behavior is norm-challenging or norm-breaking actions that target specific individuals and/or broad environments (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). Individuals with higher subjective wellbeing are more likely to follow norms (Stavrova *et al.*, 2013) and have good relations with others (De Neve *et al.*, 2013). Therefore, we hypothesize:

H2: Subjective wellbeing (a) positively predicts citizenship behavior and (b) negatively predicts deviant behavior.

Subjective wellbeing and psychological wellbeing are empirically related but theoretically separate constructs. Unlike subjective wellbeing, psychological wellbeing focuses on the overall effectiveness of or the pursuit of human functioning and excellence (Diener *et al.*, 2009; Wright & Cropanzano, 2000). For example, Waterman (2008) suggested three possible situations for these variables: First, both subjective wellbeing and psychological wellbeing could be present simultaneously. Second, subjective wellbeing shows up without psychological wellbeing – in other words, a person might experience pleasure and might optimize short term interests, but not achieve self-acceptance or purpose in life. Third, neither type of wellbeing exists (Waterman,

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2008). The situation that subjective wellbeing *only* may be present opens the theoretical possibility that subjective wellbeing predicts psychological wellbeing. Empirically, many researchers used life satisfaction and subjective wellbeing interchangeably and found that subjective wellbeing enhances psychological wellbeing (Cummings, 2002; Kardas *et al.*, 2019). However, other researchers were concerned about equalizing life satisfaction and subjective wellbeing. They believe that subjective wellbeing is a broader construct, which includes life satisfaction, the presence of positive affectivity and the lack of negative affectivity (Diener & Ryan, 2009; Diener *et al.*, 1999; Lucas & Diener, 2008). For our sample of college students, we believe this conceptualization makes sense and decided to use subjective wellbeing instead of life satisfaction in this study. Therefore, we hypothesize:

H3(a): Subjective wellbeing positively predicts psychological wellbeing.

Psychological wellbeing is about pursuing growth and meaningfulness in life. Researchers have found that job or career-related variables are strong predictors of psychological wellbeing (Bell *et al.*, 2012; Rothmann, 2008; Sumer *et al.*, 2005). Personal adaptability, career identity, and social and human capital consist of employability (Fugate *et al.*, 2004). Personal adaptability indicates a potential for making changes, especially good changes (Baard *et al.*, 2014) and makes individuals more likely to pursue good behavior. Career identity clarifies one's current and future career progress, positions, and goals (Ashforth, 2000). High and clear career identity tends to make individuals feel that they are in charge of their lives and their growth. Hillage and Pollard (1998) also made the important point that for a person to be able to make the most of his/her "employability assets," much depends on their personal circumstances (for example family responsibilities) and external factors (for example the current level of opportunity within the labor market). As social and human capital have been shown to be predictors of psychological wellbeing (Ryan & Deci, 2001), we hypothesize:

H3(b): Employability positively predicts psychological wellbeing.

Status, wellbeing and behavior

Status has been understood as a person's relative position within a hierarchy (Benoit-Smullyan, 1944) of a reference group – in our case, fellow employees and students. Hyman (1942) indicated several different criteria that people use to estimate status, such as money, education, and achievements. Benoit-Smullyan (1944) wrote that there were fundamentally three aspects that people used to estimate rank within a hierarchy: economic, political, and prestige.

"By a hierarchy we mean a number of individuals ordered on an inferiority-superiority scale with respect to the comparative degree to which they possess or embody some socially approved or generally desired attribute or characteristic. A hierarchal position is thus always a position in which one individual is identified with others with regard to the possession or embodiment of some common characteristic, but differentiated from these others in the degree, or measure, to which that characteristic is possessed or embodied. The three chief hierarchies with which we will be concerned are: the economic hierarchy, the political hierarchy, and the prestige hierarchy. Relative position within these hierarchies constitutes

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economic status, political status, and prestige status respectively” (Benoit-Smullyan, 1944: 159-160).

Researchers have found that status - and attempts to maintain or improve one’s status - affect behavior at work. Status concerns are quite strong motivators of behavior (Agneessens & Wittek, 2012; Frank, 1985) because individuals care deeply about their relative position within their groups at work and at school, and they try actively to improve their status (Loch *et al.*, 2001). Researchers have also found relationships between status and performance expectations at work (Thye & Kalkhoff, 2009): high status individuals, among others, “(1) receive more opportunities to perform, (2) perform more often, (3) are evaluated more positively for their performance” (Thye, 2000, p. 412). In a social exchange, high status increases the perceived value of resources received (whether material, information, advice, or affection), and higher status parties are preferred as exchange partners (Thye, 2000). According to Minkov (2009), life control explains more than 60% variance of subjective wellbeing across 97 nations. Similarly, Galinha and Pais-Ribeiro (2012) found that life events and socio-demographic variables were strong predictors of subjective wellbeing.

We believe that status enhances people’s evaluations of their experience and lives (subjective wellbeing) for the following reasons: (1) high status individuals are more likely to receive needed resources to perform well at work or in college; (2) high status individuals are more tolerable of mistakes and uncertainties and tend to have more chances to start one more time; and (3) high status individuals are more likely to feel that they are in control, which is a critical aspect of subjective wellbeing. Therefore, we hypothesize that:

H4 (a): Status positively predicts subjective wellbeing.

Researchers have different understandings of the relationship between wealth, social class, resources, and wellbeing (Das *et al.*, 2020; Gallagher & Vella-Brodrick, 2008; Ryan & Deci, 2001; Wienk *et al.*, 2022). Often, results have been found to be different in different countries and cultural environments (Addai *et al.*, 2014; He *et al.*, 2018; Suhail & Chaudhry, 2004). According to a study from Diener *et al.* (2018), with data from 123 nations, subjective wellbeing is highly influenced by economic and sociopolitical factors ($r = .83$). Following social stratification, socioeconomic status is “the most reliable and valid single measure of an individual’s position on the economic, power, and prestige dimensions” (Mueller & Parcel, 1981: pp. 15). Because of social mobility across generations, status provides opportunities for positions and occupations that may exclude people of different status.

Social exchange occurs between individuals, between organizations, and between individuals and their environment. Status can be an important social exchange resource (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Following this view, individuals with higher status are likely to experience better results and experiences in organizations – work and college. For example, Jackson and Tomlinson (2021) found that socioeconomic status predicts employability facets, such as networking, understanding of future career and profile, and attractiveness to employer. Hu *et al.* (2022) showed that high status individuals tend to adopt more adaptive career behaviors, engage in career exploration, pursue self-directed goals, and achieve higher person-job fit than low status individuals. Andrewartha and Harvey (2017) found that, although low status students benefit more from university career services than high status students do, high status students are more likely to use these services than are low status students. It is possible that individuals with rare, unique and valuable occupational competencies and resources experience status increase in terms of economic,

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political, and prestige dimensions. However, this increase takes time, requires opportunities, and includes uncertainties. Therefore, we hypothesize that:

H4(b): Status positively predicts employability.

In the literature, there are inconsistent relations between status and behavior, especially positive behaviors. For example, Liu and Koivula (2021) found that status was positively associated with pro-environmental behavior. However, Andreoni *et al.* (2021) failed to find that significant relations between status and prosocial behavior. More interestingly, Robinson and Piff (2017) concluded that low status individuals are more likely to demonstrate prosocial behaviors as the adaptive and complementary response and as the symbol of having control over their social environments. We believe that these results are inconsistent mainly because status influences behavior through different mechanisms, under different circumstances (Brown-Iannuzzi *et al.*, 2017). As Cropanzano *et al.* (2017) clarified, social behaviors should not be considered as unidimensional: A low degree of pro-social behavior does not necessarily mean a high degree of anti-social behavior.

To understand the relationship between status and behavior, we also paid attention to deviant behavior in our study. Korous *et al.* (2018) conducted a second-order meta-analysis and found that status significantly, negatively, and mildly led to internalized behavior problems, such as mood, anxiety, and somatic symptoms. However, status was not significantly associated with externalized behavior problems, such as antisocial behaviors. With these findings, Korous *et al.* (2018) recommended that future research examine status with specific dimensions of social behavior and explore the role and mechanism of status on the development of biological, psychological, and sociological results.

In addition to behavior, more and more researchers have begun to explore the connections between status and wellbeing, especially psychological wellbeing. For example, Sheehy-Skeffington (2020) found that low status individuals tend to address immediate needs instead of long-term results. Fassbender and Leyendecker (2018) suggested that socioeconomic status is a long-term influential predictor of psychological wellbeing. Navarro-Carrillo *et al.* (2020) recommended future research to examine how status influences psychological wellbeing.

After our review of the status and the social exchange literature, we decided to examine the relationships between status and citizenship behavior, deviant behavior, and psychological wellbeing. The results of status vary by time, context, and format. Given the complexity of status, our niche foci of variables are appropriate to demonstrate some good understanding of status and its influence. As Destin *et al.* (2017) described, we believe that how people interpret their status shifts their thoughts, identities, affects, motivations, and behaviors. To be more specific, in the present study, we only examined the indirect relationships of status through employability and subjective wellbeing.

With higher status, individuals are more likely to gain fulfilling work where they have the potential to make changes, demonstrate clear understanding of career goals, and access resources, and opportunities to get things done. With higher employability, these individuals are more likely to help others to succeed, less likely to conduct counterproductive behaviors, and more likely to achieve self-actualization, function efficiently, and find meaning in their lives. In addition, high status individuals tend to give high ratings to their experiences and lives. These high ratings create an opportunity for positive social exchanges, such as participation in activities that benefit others,

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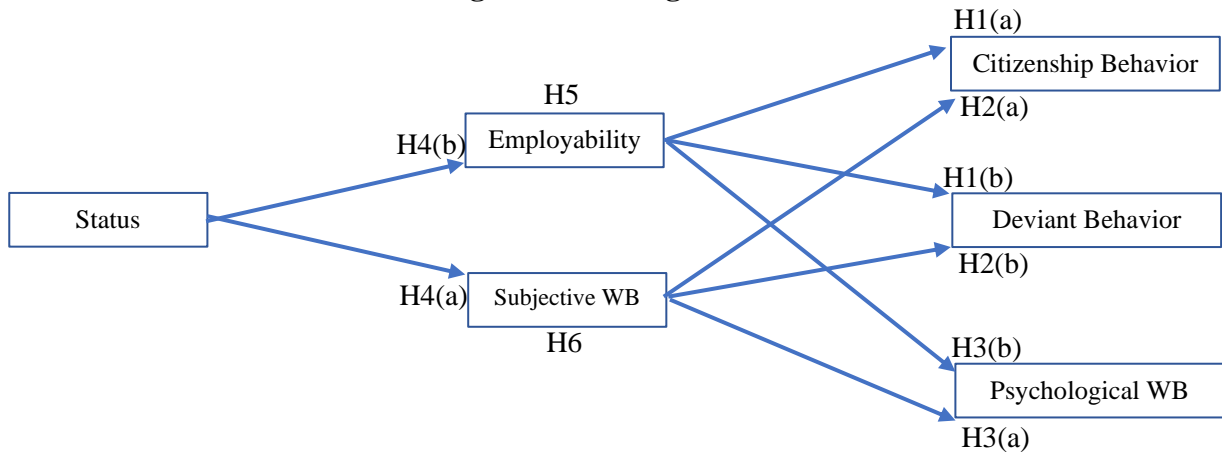
avoidance of destructive behaviors, and pursuit of meaningful and benevolent challenges. Thus, we hypothesize:

H5: Employability mediates the relationship between status and (a) citizenship behavior, (b) deviant behavior, and (c) psychological wellbeing.

H6: Subjective wellbeing mediates the relationship between status and (a) citizenship behavior, (b) deviant behavior, and (c) psychological wellbeing.

Figure 1 summarizes our testing model. Although gender is not a main variable in this study, we recognize that gender indeed may affect our hypotheses. For example, men and women have different attitudes, perceptions, and ratings of subjective and psychological wellbeing (Burns & Machin, 2010; Roothman *et al.*, 2003). Despite similar work resources and opportunities, men and women have demonstrated slightly different work choices and behaviors (Astin, 1984; Gao, 2020; Kundi & Badar, 2021; Spector & Zhou, 2014). More interestingly, men and women perceive and pursue status differently (Kim, 2021; Mouzon *et al.*, 2020). Therefore, when testing our hypotheses, we controlled the effect of gender.

Figure 1. Testing Model



Sample and Measurements

We collected qualitative and quantitative responses of college students in Mexico, the Philippines, Romania, Russia, and the United States. Data were collected online through a survey without any personal identifier. The questionnaire was available in English and Spanish. We used convenience sampling approach to contact business students in colleges that we worked at or had contact with. We sent out invitation letters to students to introduce the purpose of this study and encourage them to forward the invitation letter with survey links to their friends who are also college students in business.

Our final sample includes 250 responses from each country (1,250 responses in total). Given that some of our participants were fulltime college students, we rephrased certain items from published scales initially developed for the workplace as “work and/or school.” For example, one question of our citizenship measures is: “I help others who have been absent from work/school.” Other than gender, all variables were measured on the 1-7 Likert-type scale.

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Status. In our qualitative research, we had hoped to develop a parsimonious and relevant measure of status and asked respondents: “In your opinion, why do some people have higher status than others?” With this open-ended question, we identified three common themes upon which our international participants generally agreed (see Table 1 for details).

Table 1. Sample qualitative explanations of status in the different countries

Themes	Mexico	Philippines	Romania	Russia	U.S.
Theme 1: Family’s economic situation/wealth.	<p>“Their parents are rich.”</p> <p>“Because of their economic situations.”</p> <p>“They don’t have to work.”</p>	<p>“Have wealthy parents.”</p> <p>“Come from a wealthy family.”</p> <p>“Have accumulated generational wealth over the years.”</p>	<p>“Come from wealth families.”</p> <p>“Depend on wealth.”</p> <p>“Have wealthy background.”</p>	<p>“Have more wealth.”</p> <p>“Born in wealth families.”</p> <p>“Depend on their parents’ wealth and fortune.”</p>	<p>“Come from a wealthy family.”</p> <p>“Because of general wealth.”</p> <p>“Have a wealthy family.”</p>
Theme 2: Family’s political influence.	<p>“Take advantages of opportunities in communities.”</p> <p>“Social positions they are at.”</p> <p>“Always be updated about what happens in their environment.”</p>	<p>“Have a well-known family.”</p> <p>“Have a political dynasty within their clans.”</p> <p>“Connections play an important role in status.”</p>	<p>“Have powerful relationships.”</p> <p>“A status is built over the years”</p> <p>“More power and influences”</p>	<p>“Have good connections”</p> <p>“Depend on political value.”</p> <p>“Have powerful connections with influential people.”</p>	<p>“Obtain generational wealth--monetary or social standing.”</p> <p>“Have more influence.”</p> <p>“Through connections, networking or nepotism.”</p>
Theme 3: Family’s prestige.	<p>“Thanks to their education.”</p> <p>“They are better prepared.”</p> <p>“Have sufficient studies.”</p>	<p>“Presented opportunities.”</p> <p>“Social perceptions of their value and regard.”</p> <p>“Depend on their educational background.”</p>	<p>“Come from the family name.”</p> <p>“Be in a prestigious family”</p> <p>“Make accomplishments in terms of education.”</p> <p>“Because of their education.”</p>	<p>“Because of their education, qualification and capability.”</p> <p>“Have higher levels of education.”</p> <p>“Just present themselves and their prestige.”</p>	<p>“Because of their school prestige.”</p> <p>“They are expected by others to have high status.”</p> <p>“Depend on levels of education.”</p>

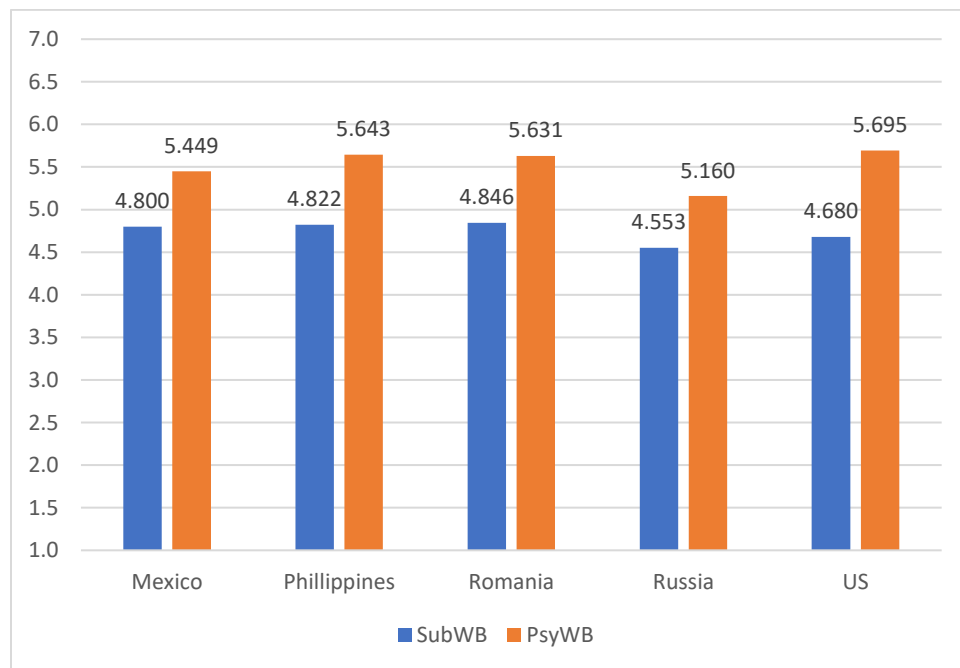
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Status themes were the family's economic situation/ wealth, the family's political influence, and the family's prestige and education. Quantitatively, we measured participants' status with the following three survey items rated on a Likert-type scale from 1 to 7: Rate my family's economic situation/ wealth relative to other people in my country; Rate my family's political clout (*e.g.*, potential influence) at both the local and national level; Rate my family's prestige taking into account the school that I and my family members attend/ attended, the clubs and associations to which my family belongs, the houses I live in, and the cars I drive. An exploratory factor analysis showed that the three status items loaded in one factor, which explained 72.72% of total variance.

Wellbeing - Our measure of *subjective wellbeing (SubWB)* (5 items) included life satisfaction, positive affect, and negative affect, adapted from Diener *et al.* (1985) and Watson *et al.* (1988). *Psychological wellbeing (PsyWB)* (7 items) was measured with reference to the work of Ryff (1989). Figure 2 summarizes the mean scores by respondents in the different countries on the two measures of wellbeing; we found that in all countries, respondents scored higher on psychological wellbeing than subjective wellbeing ($p < .001$) and that this difference was highest in the U.S. (PsyWB=5.695, SubWB=4.680, diff=1.015) and lowest in Russia (PsyWB=5.160, SubWB=4.553, diff=.607).

Employability (Employ) - We measured employability using Näswall *et al.*'s (2006) scales with 3 items. The *citizenship behavior (CitiB)* measure (5 items) was adopted from Smith *et al.* (1983). *Deviant behavior (Devia)* (6 items) was assessed using a measure from Bennett and Robinson (2000). See Appendix 1 for measures of constructs.

Figure 2. Subjective and Psychological Wellbeing in 5 Country Samples



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Results

Tables 2.1-2.6 provide descriptive statistics in the overall sample and in different individual country samples. The overall sample consisted of 56.7% female participants (see Table 2.1), highest (62.0%) in the U.S. sample (see Table 2.6) and is lowest (41.2%) in the Filipino sample (see Table 2.3). The literature suggests that females are more likely to demonstrate citizenship behaviors and less likely to demonstrate deviant behaviors than participants in other gender categories. Therefore, when testing our hypotheses, we controlled the effect of gender.

Table 2.1 Descriptive Statistics of the Overall Sample (n=1250)

	C. alpha	Mean	Std.	Gender	Status	Employ	SubWB	CitiB	Devia
Gender	--	.567	.496	--					
Status	.808	3.878	1.130	-.019	--				
Employ	.852	5.090	1.168	.005	.187***	--			
SubWB	.795	4.740	1.141	.029	.178***	.379***	--		
CitiB	.777	4.802	1.029	.164***	.039	.289***	.379***	--	
Devia	.846	2.955	1.254	-.170***	.109***	-.160***	-.218***	-.249***	--
PsyWB	.723	5.516	.921	.042	.062*	.307***	.473***	.355***	-.221***

Note: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$. C. alpha = Cronbach's alpha. Std=Standard deviation. Employ=Employability, SubWB=Subjective wellbeing, CitiB=Citizenship behavior, Devia=Deviant behavior, PsyWB= Psychological wellbeing. Gender: 1-Female, 0-Male. Our overall sample includes 709 female responses, 514 male responses, 18 non-binary/prefer not to say responses, and 9 responses without gender information.

Table 2.2 Descriptive Statistics of the Mexican Sample (n=250)

	C. alpha	Mean	Std.	Gender	Status	Employ	SubWB	CitiB	Devia
Gender	--	.576	.495	--					
Status	.743	3.548	.916	-.061	--				
Employ	.880	4.976	1.287	-.027	.242***	--			
SubWB	.841	4.800	1.219	-.004	.209**	.399***	--		
CitiB	.768	4.743	1.002	.145*	.139*	.303***	.414***	--	
Devia	.842	2.999	1.285	-.015	.071	-.051	-.135*	-.059	--
PsyWB	.733	5.449	.977	.036	.178**	.338***	.432***	.352***	-.048

Note: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$. C. alpha = Cronbach's alpha. Std=Standard deviation. Employ=Employability, SubWB=Subjective wellbeing, CitiB=Citizenship behavior, Devia=Deviant behavior, PsyWB= Psychological wellbeing. Gender: 1-Female, 0-Male. Our Mexican sample includes 144 female responses, 104 male responses, and 2 responses without gender information.

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Table 2.3 Descriptive Statistics of the Filipino Sample (n=250)

	C. alpha	Mean	Std.	Gender	Status	Employ	SubWB	CitiB	Devia
Gender	--	.412	.493	--					
Status	.787	3.935	1.062	-.064	--				
Employ	.846	5.089	.991	.072	.263***	--			
SubWB	.782	4.822	1.061	.031	.147*	.424***	--		
CitiB	.829	4.763	.999	.234***	.109	.349***	.379***	--	
Devia	.884	3.010	1.328	-.189**	.061	-.302***	-.148*	-.174**	--
PsyWB	.796	5.643	.910	.128*	.082	.424***	.582***	.423***	-.246***

Note: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$. C. alpha = Cronbach's alpha. Std=Standard deviation. Employ=Employability, SubWB=Subjective wellbeing, CitiB=Citizenship behavior, Devia=Deviant behavior, PsyWB= Psychological wellbeing. Gender: 1-Female, 0-Male. Our Filipino sample includes 103 female responses, 135 male responses, 8 non-binary/prefer not to say responses, and 4 responses without gender information.

Table 2.4 Descriptive Statistics of the Romanian Sample (n=250)

	C. alpha	Mean	Std.	Gender	Status	Employ	SubWB	CitiB	Devia
Gender	--	.616	.487	--					
Status	.765	4.272	1.093	-.085	--				
Employ	.877	5.139	1.188	-.045	.147*	--			
SubWB	.836	4.846	1.180	.106	.187**	.394***	--		
CitiB	.769	4.875	1.025	.240***	.005	.273***	.361***	--	
Devia	.841	3.004	1.213	-.245***	.111	-.189***	-.331***	-.322***	--
PsyWB	.696	5.631	.885	.104	.095	.292***	.523**	.256***	-.246***

Note: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$. C. alpha = Cronbach's alpha. Std=Standard deviation. Employ=Employability, SubWB=Subjective wellbeing, CitiB=Citizenship behavior, Devia=Deviant behavior, PsyWB= Psychological wellbeing. Gender: 1-Female, 0-Male. Our Romanian sample includes 152 female responses, 94 male responses, and 4 non-binary/prefer not to say responses.

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Table 2.5 Descriptive Statistics of the Russian Sample (n=250)

	C. alpha	Mean	Std.	Gender	Status	Employ	SubWB	CitiB	Devia
Gender	--	.612	.488	--					
Status	.721	4.435	.828	.008	--				
Employ	.781	5.073	1.107	.053	.200**	--			
SubWB	.717	4.553	1.025	.080	.173**	.238***	--		
CitiB	.686	4.606	.906	.117	.012	.258***	.327***	--	
Devia	.805	3.249	1.140	-.160*	.052	-.026	-.158*	-.251***	--
PsyWB	.670	5.160	.880	-.044	.232***	.192**	.382***	.223***	-.185**

Note: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$. C. alpha = Cronbach's alpha. Std=Standard deviation. Employ=Employability, SubWB=Subjective wellbeing, CitiB=Citizenship behavior, Devia=Deviant behavior, PsyWB= Psychological wellbeing. Gender: 1-Female, 0-Male. Our Russian sample includes 153 female responses, 89 male responses, 6 non-binary/prefer not to say responses, and 2 responses without gender information.

Table 2.6 Descriptive Statistics of the U.S. Sample (n=250)

	C. alpha	Mean	Std.	Gender	Status	Employ	SubWB	CitiB	Devia
Gender	--	.620	.486	--					
Status	.811	3.199	1.230	.089	--				
Employ	.875	5.170	1.244	-.017	.200**	--			
SubWB	.785	4.680	1.189	-.023	.273***	.436***	--		
CitiB	.815	5.024	1.157	.086	.130*	.265***	.408***	--	
Devia	.842	2.514	1.191	-.252***	-.042	-.233***	-.332***	-.354***	--
PsyWB	.667	5.695	.852	.044	.069	.306**	.448***	.439***	-.294***

Note: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$. C. alpha = Cronbach's alpha. Std=Standard deviation. Employ=Employability, SubWB=Subjective wellbeing, CitiB=Citizenship behavior, Devia=Deviant behavior, PsyWB= Psychological wellbeing. Gender: 1-Female, 0-Male. Our U.S. sample includes 155 female responses, 94 male responses, and 1 response without gender information.

While we did not present hypotheses about the direct relationship between status and the three dependent variables, we believe that it is important to report these relationships here. Controlling for gender, we find that in the overall sample status did not significantly predict citizenship behavior. However, at the effect of gender, status positively predicted deviant behavior ($\beta = .106$, $p < .001$) and psychological wellbeing ($\beta = .063$, $p < .05$) in the overall sample. The higher the status, the more likely students would demonstrate deviant behavior. In the Mexican sample, controlling for gender, status did not significantly predict deviant behavior, but it did positively predict citizenship behavior ($\beta = .148$, $p < .05$) and psychological wellbeing ($\beta = .180$, $p < .01$). In the Filipino sample, with the effect of gender, status did not significantly predict deviant behavior nor psychological wellbeing, but it positively predicted citizenship behavior ($\beta = .058$, $p < .05$). In the Romanian sample, with the effect of gender, status did not significantly predict deviant behavior, citizenship behavior, or psychological wellbeing. In the Russian sample, with the effect of gender, status did not significantly predict deviant behavior or citizenship behavior, but it

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positively predicted psychological wellbeing ($\beta=.232, p<.001$). In the U.S. sample, controlling for gender, status did not significantly predict deviant behavior, citizenship behavior, or psychological wellbeing. These mixed results suggest – as we had expected – that mediating variables are needed to explain the relationship between status and “good” or “bad” behavior, as well as psychological wellbeing.

Table 3 shows the results of regression tests of Hypothesis 1, in which we expected to find that employability (a) positively predicts citizenship behavior and (b) negatively predicts deviant behavior. H1(a) was supported in the overall sample ($\beta=.288, p<.001$) and in all individual country samples (Mexican sample: $\beta=.307, p<.001$, Filipino sample: $\beta=.334, p<.001$, Romanian sample: $\beta=.285, p<.001$, Russian sample: $\beta=.253, p<.001$; U.S. sample $\beta=.266, p<.001$). H1(b) was supported in the overall sample ($\beta=-.159, p<.001$), Filipino sample ($\beta=-.290, p<.001$), Romanian sample ($\beta=-.200, p<.001$), and U.S. sample ($\beta=-.237, p<.001$). Although H1(b) was not supported in the Mexican and Russian samples, the coefficient between status and deviant behavior was negative. The negative but non-significant relationship may be caused by its intrinsically small effect size after controlling the effect of gender.

Table 4 shows the regression results of Hypothesis 2, in which we expected that subjective wellbeing (a) positively predicts citizenship behavior and (b) negatively predicts deviant behavior. H2(a) was supported in the overall sample ($\beta=.375, p<.001$) and in all individual country samples (Mexican sample: $\beta=.415, p<.001$, Filipino sample: $\beta=.372, p<.001$, Romanian sample: $\beta=.339, p<.001$, Russian sample: $\beta=.379, p<.001$; U.S. sample $\beta=.410, p<.001$). Similarly, H2(b) was supported in the overall sample ($\beta=-.213, p<.001$) and in all individual country samples (Mexican sample: $\beta=-.136, p<.001$, Filipino sample: $\beta=-.143, p<.001$, Romanian sample: $\beta=-.309, p<.001$, Russian sample: $\beta=-.146, p<.001$; U.S. sample $\beta=-.338, p<.001$).

Hypothesis 3 proposed that (a) subjective wellbeing and (b) employability positively predicted psychological wellbeing. H3(a) was supported in the overall sample ($\beta=.472, p<.001$) and in all individual country samples (Mexican sample: $\beta=.432, p<.001$, Filipino sample: $\beta=.578, p<.001$, Romanian sample: $\beta=.517, p<.001$, Russian sample: $\beta=.388, p<.001$; U.S. sample $\beta=.449, p<.001$). Also, H3(b) was supported in the overall sample ($\beta=.307, p<.001$) and in all individual country samples (Mexican sample: $\beta=.339, p<.001$, Filipino sample: $\beta=.417, p<.001$, Romanian sample: $\beta=.298, p<.001$, Russian sample: $\beta=.195, p<.001$; U.S. sample $\beta=.307, p<.001$). See Table 5 for details. We also supported Hypothesis 4, where we found that status predicted (a) subjective wellbeing (Overall sample: $\beta=.178, p<.001$, Mexican sample: $\beta=.210, p<.01$, Filipino sample: $\beta=.150, p<.05$, Romanian sample: $\beta=.197, p<.01$, Russian sample: $\beta=.172, p<.01$; U.S. sample $\beta=.277, p<.001$) and (b) employability (Overall sample: $\beta=.187, p<.001$, Mexican sample: $\beta=.242, p<.001$, Filipino sample: $\beta=.269, p<.001$, Romanian sample: $\beta=.145, p<.05$, Russian sample: $\beta=.199, p<.01$; U.S. sample $\beta=.203, p<.01$). See Table 6 for details.

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Table 3 Regression Analyses of Hypothesis 1

	Overall Sample (n=1250)	Mexican Sample (n=250)	Filipino Sample (n=250)	Romanian Sample (n=250)	Russian Sample (n=250)	U.S. Sample (n=250)						
H1(a) DV: CitiB												
Gender	.164***	.162***	.145*	.153*	.234***	.210***	.240***	.253***	.117	.104	.086	.090
Employ		.288***		.307***		.334***		.285***		.253***		.266***
ΔF	34.489***	116.04***	5.301*	26.219***	14.368***	32.822***	15.174***	23.211***	3.470	17.074***	1.848	19.015***
ΔR ²	.027	.083	.021	.094	.055	.111	.058	.081	.014	.064	.007	.071
R ²		.110***		.115***		.166***		.139***		.078***		.078***
H1(b) DV: Devia												
Gender	-.170***	-.189***	-.015	-.016	-.189**	-.168**	-.245***	-.254***	-.160*	-.159*	-.252***	-.256***
Employ		-.159***		-.052		-.290***		-.200***		-.018		-.237***
ΔF	36.945***	33.310***	.053	.660	9.213**	23.470***	15.777***	10.968***	6.496*	.080	16.858***	15.778***
ΔR ²	.029	.025	.000	.003	.036	.084	.060	.040	.026	.000	.064	.056
R ²		.054***		.003		.120***		.100***		.026*		.120***

Note: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$. CitiB=Citizenship behavior, Employ=Employability, Gender: 1-Female, 0-Male.

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Table 4 Regression Analyses of Hypothesis 2

	Overall Sample (n=1250)		Mexican Sample (n=250)		Filipino Sample (n=250)		Romanian Sample (n=250)		Russian Sample (n=250)		U.S. Sample (n=250)	
H2(a) DV: CitiB												
Gender	.164***	.153***	.145*	.146*	.234***	.222***	.240***	.204**	.117	.092	.086	.096
SubWB		.375***		.415***		.372***		.339***		.379***		.410***
ΔF	34.489***	210.214***	5.301*	52.665***	14.368***	42.445***	15.174***	33.918***	3.470	38.248***	1.848	50.402***
ΔR ²	.027	.167	.021	.172	.055	.139	.058	.114	.014	.101	.007	.168
R ²		.194***		.193***		.194***		.172***		.115***		.175***
H2(b) DV: Devia												
Gender	-.170***	-.163***	-.015	-.015	-.189**	-.185**	-.245***	-.212***	-.160*	-.148*	-.252***	-.260***
SubWB		-.213***		-.136*		-.143*		-.309***		-.146*		-.338***
ΔF	36.945***	61.256***	.053	4.624*	9.213**	5.327*	15.777***	27.557***	6.496*	5.472*	16.858***	34.205***
ΔR ²	.029	.045	.000	.019	.036	.056	.060	.154	.026	.047	.064	.178
R ²		.074***		.019*		.092**		.214***		.073*		.242***

Note: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$. CitiB=Citizenship behavior, SubWB=Subjective wellbeing, Gender: 1-Female, 0-Male.

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Table 5 Regression Analyses of Hypothesis 3

	Overall Sample (n=1250)	Mexican Sample (n=250)	Filipino Sample (n=250)	Romanian Sample (n=250)	Russian Sample (n=250)	U.S. Sample (n=250)						
H3(a) DV: PsyWB												
Gender	.042	.029	.036	.037	.128	.110	.104	.049	-.044	-.075	.044	.054
SubWB		.472***		.432***		.578***		.517***		.388***		.449***
ΔF	2.242	357.994***	.316	56.676***	4.111	127.078***	2.691	90.276***	.486	43.419***	.471	62.418***
ΔR ²	.002	.223	.001	.186	.016	.334	.011	.265	.002	.149	.002	.201
R ²		.225***		.187***		.350***		.276***		.151***		.203***
H3(b) DV: PsyWB												
Gender	.042	.041	.036	.045	.128*	.098	.104	.117	-.044	-.055	.044	.049
Employ		.307***		.339***		.417***		.298***		.195**		.307***
ΔF	2.242	130.050***	.316	32.067***	4.111*	52.756***	2.691	24.241***	.486	9.736**	.471	25.661***
ΔR ²	.002	.094	.001	.115	.016	.173	.011	.088	.002	.038	.008	.094
R ²		.096***		.116***		.189***		.099***		.040**		.102***

Note: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$. PsyWB=Psychological wellbeing, SubWB=Subjective wellbeing, Employ=Employability, Gender: 1-Female, 0-Male.

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Table 6 Regression Analyses of Hypothesis 4

	Overall Sample (n=1250)	Mexican Sample (n=250)	Filipino Sample (n=250)	Romanian Sample (n=250)	Russian Sample (n=250)	U.S. Sample (n=250)						
H4(a) DV: SubWB												
Gender	.029	.032	-.004	.009	-.031	.041	.106	.123	.080	.079	-.023	-.048
Status		.178***		.210**		.150*		.197**		.172**		.277***
ΔF	1.057	41.005***	.004	11.313**	.239	5.655*	2.814	10.004**	1.600	7.589**	.133	20.415***
ΔR ²	.001	.032	.000	.044	.001	.022	.011	.038	.006	.030	.001	.076
R ²		.033***		.044**		.023*		.049**		.036**		.077***
H4(b) DV: Employ												
Gender	.005	.009	-.027	-.012	.072	.090	-.045	-.033	.053	.051	-.017	-.035
Status		.187***		.242***		.269***		.145*		.199**		.203**
ΔF	.038	45.140***	.175	15.279***	1.304	19.218***	.499	5.249*	.695	10.241**	.069	10.563**
ΔR ²	.000	.035	.001	.058	.005	.072	.005	.021	.003	.040	.000	.041
R ²		.035***		.059***		.077***		.026***		.043**		.041**

Note: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$. SubWB=Subjective wellbeing, Employ=Employability, Gender: 1-Female, 0-Male.

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Tables 7.1 to 7.6 show the mediation tests of Hypothesis 5 and 6. To demonstrate a significant mediation effect, we examined if the 95% confidence interval of indirect effect included 0. Without the inclusion of 0, we can conclude the existence of a mediation effect (Hayes, 2012). In general, hypotheses 5 and 6 were supported: (H5) Employability and (H6) subjective wellbeing mediated the relationship between socioeconomic status and (a) citizenship behavior, (b) deviant behavior, and (c) psychological wellbeing. However, we failed to support that employability mediated the relationship between status and deviant behavior in the Mexican and Russian samples, which we expect may be due to the peculiarities of human and social capital beyond the scope of the present paper.

Table 7.1 Mediation Tests in the Overall Sample (n=1250)

Testing Path	Effect	Standard Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Low	High
H5(a) Status → Employ → CitiB				
Direct Effect	-.011	.025	-.011	.088
Indirect Effect	.049	.009	.032	.068
H5(b) Status → Employ → Devia				
Direct Effect	.156	.031	.096	.217
Indirect Effect	-.038	.009	-.057	-.022
H5(c) Status → Employ → PsyWB				
Direct Effect	.005	.022	-.039	.049
Indirect Effect	.047	.009	.030	.064
H6(a) Status → SubWB → CitiB				
Direct Effect	-.023	.024	-.070	.024
Indirect Effect	.062	.011	.040	.085
H6(b) Status → SubWB → Devia				
Direct Effect	.165	.030	.106	.225
Indirect Effect	-.048	.010	-.069	-.029
H6(c) Status → SubWB → PsyWB				
Direct Effect	-.018	.021	-.058	.023
Indirect Effect	.069	.013	.045	.094

Note: The authors controlled the effect of gender. Number of bootstraps is 5000. SubWB=Subjective wellbeing, CitiB=Citizenship behavior, Devia= Deviant behavior, PsyWB=Psychological wellbeing.

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Table 7.2 Mediation Tests in the Mexican Sample (n=250)

Testing Path	Effect	Standard Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Low	High
H5(a) Status → Employ → CitiB				
Direct Effect	.086	.068	-.047	.219
Indirect Effect	.076	.030	.029	.144
H5(b) Status → Employ → Devia				
Direct Effect	.123	.092	-.058	.304
Indirect Effect	-.025	.028	-.088	.021
H5(c) Status → Employ → PsyWB				
Direct Effect	.112	.066	-.018	.241
Indirect Effect	.081	.031	.029	.151
H6(a) Status → SubWB → CitiB				
Direct Effect	.070	.064	-.056	.196
Indirect Effect	.092	.034	.032	.169
H6(b) Status → SubWB → Devia				
Direct Effect	.144	.090	-.033	.322
Indirect Effect	-.046	.027	-.108	-.003
H6(c) Status → SubWB → PsyWB				
Direct Effect	.100	.062	-.023	.223
Indirect Effect	.092	.032	.036	.163

Note: The authors controlled the effect of gender. Number of bootstraps is 5000.

SubWB=Subjective wellbeing, CitiB=Citizenship behavior, Devia= Deviant behavior,

PsyWB=Psychological wellbeing.

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Table 7.3 Mediation Tests in the Filipino Sample (n=250)

Testing Path	Effect	Standard Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Low	High
H5(a) Status → Employ → CitiB				
Direct Effect	.036	.057	-.076	.148
Indirect Effect	.082	.026	.032	.135
H5(b) Status → Employ → Devia				
Direct Effect	.172	.077	.020	.323
Indirect Effect	-.110	.039	-.191	-.041
H5(c) Status → Employ → PsyWB				
Direct Effect	-.020	.051	-.120	.081
Indirect Effect	.097	.031	.039	.161
H6(a) Status → SubWB → CitiB				
Direct Effect	.066	.054	-.041	.174
Indirect Effect	.051	.024	.008	.103
H6(b) Status → SubWB → Devia				
Direct Effect	.091	.078	-.064	.245
Indirect Effect	-.029	.018	-.070	-.001
H6(c) Status → SubWB → PsyWB				
Direct Effect	.004	.045	-.084	.092
Indirect Effect	.074	.033	.013	.142

*Note: The authors controlled the effect of gender. Number of bootstraps is 5000.
 SubWB=Subjective wellbeing, CitiB=Citizenship behavior, Devia= Deviant behavior,
 PsyWB=Psychological wellbeing.*

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Table 7.4 Mediation Tests in the Romanian Sample (n=250)

Testing Path	Effect	Standard Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Low	High
H5(a) Status → Employ → CitiB				
Direct Effect	-.015	.056	-.126	.096
Indirect Effect	.039	.020	.006	.086
H5(b) Status → Employ → Devia				
Direct Effect	.135	.068	.002	.269
Indirect Effect	-.035	.018	-.074	-.004
H5(c) Status → Employ → PsyWB				
Direct Effect	.051	.050	-.047	.148
Indirect Effect	.034	.018	.005	.074
H6(a) Status → SubWB → CitiB				
Direct Effect	-.040	.056	-.150	.069
Indirect Effect	.064	.024	.021	.116
H6(b) Status → SubWB → Devia				
Direct Effect	.175	.066	.045	.304
Indirect Effect	-.074	.028	-.132	-.023
H6(c) Status → SubWB → PsyWB				
Direct Effect	.002	.045	-.087	.091
Indirect Effect	.082	.030	.028	.147

Note: The authors controlled the effect of gender. Number of bootstraps is 5000.

SubWB=Subjective wellbeing, CitiB=Citizenship behavior, Devia= Deviant behavior,

PsyWB=Psychological wellbeing.

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Table 7.5 Mediation Tests in the Russian Sample (n=250)

Testing Path	Effect	Standard Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Low	High
H5(a) Status → Employ → CitiB				
Direct Effect	-.045	.068	-.179	.090
Indirect Effect	.057	.023	.018	.107
H5(b) Status → Employ → Devia				
Direct Effect	.081	.088	-.093	.255
Indirect Effect	-.008	.019	-.050	.028
H5(c) Status → Employ → PsyWB				
Direct Effect	.214	.066	.083	.345
Indirect Effect	.033	.018	.002	.073
H6(a) Status → SubWB → CitiB				
Direct Effect	-.049	.067	-.180	.082
Indirect Effect	.062	.024	.017	.111
H6(b) Status → SubWB → Devia				
Direct Effect	.111	.087	-.060	.281
Indirect Effect	-.038	.023	-.087	-.002x
H6(c) Status → SubWB → PsyWB				
Direct Effect	.181	.062	.058	.304
Indirect Effect	.065	.029	.015	.130

Note: The authors controlled the effect of gender. Number of bootstraps is 5000.
 SubWB=Subjective wellbeing, CitiB=Citizenship behavior, Devia= Deviant behavior,
 PsyWB=Psychological wellbeing.

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Table 7.6 Mediation Tests in the U.S. Sample (n=250)

Testing Path	Effect	Standard Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Low	High
H5(a) Status→Employ→CitiB				
Direct Effect	.068	.059	-.048	.184
Indirect Effect	.048	.022	.013	.098
H5(b) Status→Employ→Devia				
Direct Effect	.029	.059	-.088	.146
Indirect Effect	-.048	.019	-.090	-.015
H5(c) Status→Employ→PsyWB				
Direct Effect	.003	.043	-.082	.087
Indirect Effect	.043	.016	.016	.077
H6(a) Status→SubWB→CitiB				
Direct Effect	.010	.057	-.102	.122
Indirect Effect	.106	.030	.052	.170
H6(b) Status→SubWB→Devia				
Direct Effect	.078	.058	-.037	.192
Indirect Effect	-.097	.029	-.158	-.046
H6(c) Status→SubWB→PsyWB				
Direct Effect	-.044	.041	-.125	.037
Indirect Effect	.090	.023	.047	.136

Note: The authors controlled the effect of gender. Number of bootstraps is 5000.

SubWB=Subjective wellbeing, CitiB=Citizenship behavior, Devia= Deviant behavior, PsyWB=Psychological wellbeing.

Conclusion

In this paper, we integrated social exchange theory and the wellbeing literature to explore two research questions: (1) To what extent is status related to “good” and “bad” behaviors at work/ in school? and, (2) what is the relationship, if any, between these behaviors and people’s wellbeing? We found that we could generally explain why our respondents in five different countries demonstrated citizenship behavior or deviant behavior at work or in college.

Overall, we concluded that employability mediated the relationship between status and citizenship behavior and the relationship between status and psychological wellbeing. In the Filipino, Romanian, and U.S. samples, we also supported that employability mediated the relationship between status and deviant behaviors. We conclude that assistance provided to students seeking post-college employment may do much more for them than simply help students find a job; it might actually have a positive effect on the behaviors they exhibit before they even start the new job. In addition, subjective wellbeing was found to be one way to explain the relationships between status and the dependent variables. Subjective wellbeing mediated the relationships between status and citizenship behavior, deviant behavior, and psychological wellbeing. Increasingly, we are aware of the importance of “happiness” at work and in school, and how students’ wellbeing can affect their behavior.

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This study includes several limitations, which enable some interesting future research directions: (1) Due to collecting data from five countries, we adopted the one-time convenience sampling approach, which is hard to justify causality. Future research can benefit from conducting longitudinal studies with random samples. (2) We tested all hypotheses at the control of gender. Future research may consider the influence of degree programs and other demographic information such as race and citizenship. (3) Our study collected qualitative and quantitative data for status. Future research can strength their findings by adapting different research methods, such as case studies, interview, and focus group observations. (4) To study college students with limited but not zero work experience in different countries, we blurred the boundaries between work and college. Future research can replicate the testing model with employees in their workplace to examine the effect of status on behaviors and wellbeing in a different population. (5) Future research can make theoretical contributions by enhancing the measures of employability based on its theoretical components (personal adaptability, career identity, social and human capital) across different settings. (6) Finally, future research can examine if or how college students might achieve psychological wellbeing without having subjective wellbeing.

In this paper, we applied both positive and negative social exchange constructs to explain outcome variables. We contributed to the literature on deviant behavior by examining why it occurs at work or in college. We integrated the wellbeing literature with social exchange theory and suggested that when students are currently happy and feel that their future employment is promising, they are more likely to demonstrate socially desirable behavior, less likely to demonstrate deviant behavior, and feel fulfilled and happy regardless of their status. These findings have strong practical value: Educators can make efforts to enhance student's employability and subjective wellbeing through class designs, exercises, and projects. Once students have high employability and subjective wellbeing, they tend to do good to the social environment regardless of the status they originally had, which, in any case, students can hardly change in the short term.

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Appendix 1. Measures of Constructs

Status. Source: Items generated by the authors.
Rate (on a scale of 1 to 7) your family's economic situation/ wealth relative to other people in your country. (1 = much less than others, 5= about average, 7= much more than others)
Rate your family's political clout (<i>e.g.</i> , potential influence) at both the local and national level. Does your family have more or less clout than other families in your country?
Rate your family's prestige taking into account the school that you and your family members attend/ attended, the clubs and associations to which your family belongs, the houses you live in, and the cars you drive.
Employability (Employ). Source: Näswall <i>et al.</i> (2006)
With my qualifications and experience, I can find new work relatively quickly.
My competence allows me to work in several positions/ jobs.
My knowledge and experience can be used in many positions/ jobs.
Subjective Wellbeing (SubWB). Source: adapted from Diener <i>et al.</i> (1985) and Watson <i>et al.</i> (1988).
In most ways my life is close to my ideal.
So far, I have gotten the important things I want in life.
If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing.
Generally, I do NOT feel pessimistic about my school or job.
Generally, I am optimistic and upbeat about my school or job.
Citizenship Behavior (CitiB). Source: Smith <i>et al.</i> (1983)
I help others who have been absent from work/ school.
I volunteer for things that are not required.
I help others who have heavy workloads.
I attend functions not required but that help company/ school image.
My participation at work/ school is above the norm.
Deviant Behavior (Devia). Source: adapted from Bennett and Robinson (2000).
At work/ in class, I have worked on personal matters instead of working.
At work/ in class, I have spent a lot of time fantasizing or daydreaming instead of working.
At work/ school, I have said something hurtful to someone.
At work/ in class, I have taken longer breaks than are acceptable.
At work/ school, I have neglected to follow instructions.
At work/ school, I have left my work for someone else to finish.
Psychological Wellbeing (PsyWB). Source: adapted from Ryff (1989).
I accept multiple aspects of myself, including my good and my bad qualities.
I have warm, satisfying, trusting relationships with others.
I am able to resist social pressures to think and act in certain ways.
I evaluate myself by my own personal standards.