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A Model of the Antecedents and Consequences of Job Insecurity

By

William D. Reisel

A dissertation submitted to the Graduate Faculty in Business in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, The City University of New York

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THE CITY UNIVERSITY OF NEW YORK

Abstract

A model of the Antecedents and Consequences

of Job Insecurity

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This research tested a model of the antecedents and consequences of job insecurity. A sample of 276 lower, middle, and senior level managers were surveyed. Four principal questions were addressed: 1) What are the antecedents of job insecurity? 2) What is the influence of moderator variables upon the antecedents--job insecurity relationship? 3) How is job insecurity related to consequences? 4) Does job insecurity mediate between antecedents and consequences of job insecurity? Role ambiguity and environmental conditions were found to be antecedent to job insecurity. Locus of control was found to moderate the antecedents--job insecurity relationship. Job insecurity was found to be positively related to job search behavior and negatively related to organizational commitment and organizational trust. It was also found that job insecurity partially mediates the relationship between its antecedents and consequences in two of three models that were tested.

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INTRODUCTION

Purpose of the Research

The purpose of this research is to empirically investigate the antecedents and consequences of job insecurity and thereby add to our theoretical understanding and practical knowledge of the construct. Job insecurity is a term which has been in the organizational literature for some time, though it has only recently been a topic of specific theoretical focus (Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt, 1984). In general, job insecurity refers to one's perception that one's job incumbency is at risk. At present, job insecurity is often mentioned in the news media and business press (New York Times, 1996; BusinessWeek, 1996; Fortune, 1996). Millions of Americans have been involuntarily displaced from their jobs despite a robust economy and record breaking highs in the financial markets (New York Times, 1996). Although jobs are being created by the economy, a shift in the type of work is also occurring. Fewer high paying jobs are being added to the market. In 1994, the 20 leading industries that added jobs paid an average hourly wage of $11.12. More jobs, however, were added in below average wage industries such as personnel supply services and eating establishments than above average

wage industries (Plunkert and Hayghe, 1995).

The importance of this is that the world of work as we know it is undergoing what Mirvis and Hall (1994) call a fundamental transformation. Public opinion surveys and anecdotal evidence has portrayed a pervasive sense of worry among job holders. In a survey of large corporations, 46 percent of workers reported experiencing concerns about being laid off (BusinessWeek, 1996a). The social-scientific literatures, however, have given relatively little attention to this condition. We need to know more about the sources and consequences of job insecurity in order to enhance our theoretical understanding of the construct as well as to help both individuals and managers find suitable responses to the experience and conditions of job insecurity.

To this end, a model is offered to provide a conceptual framework for questions concerning the sources and consequences of job insecurity.

Four general questions are addressed:

1. What are the sources of job insecurity?
2. What is the influence of moderator variables upon the antecedents--job insecurity relationship?
3. How is job insecurity related to consequences?
4. Does job insecurity mediate between antecedents and consequences of job insecurity?

Importance of the Research

Job insecurity is an important and under-researched subject that individuals across all levels of socio-economic status are currently experiencing (New York Times, 1996). With it, the entire meaning of work is evolving so rapidly that our theoretical understanding of this change has, in a sense, lagged more than a step behind. While this investigation does not endeavor to explore the social basis for this change, a brief historical background is believed useful to understanding the rationale that motivates this research.

Job insecurity is part of a phenomenon of late twentieth century economic and social evolution (Table 1). To a considerable degree, job insecurity is a reaction to the wholesale elimination of jobs from the economy (Cooper, 1992). According to one source, 43 million jobs were ended during the period of 1979 to 1995 (New York Times, 1996). Unlike prior recessionary driven layoffs, the current wave of layoffs have come while corporate profits and stock prices have attained all-time highs. For many of the millions who were let go, there was no return to permanent, full-time work. Some changed careers entirely. Others joined the ranks of a contingent work force in which their employment contract is held by one firm which places them as non-employees at the work site of another organization. Contingent workers often have no fringe benefits, face

Table 1

Brief History of Job Insecurity

Date	Event
1956:	William H. Whyte, Jr. described reciprocal loyalty in The Organization Man
1970s:	Rising labor costs and growing competition from overseas suppliers prompt U.S. corporations to step up automation and set up plants in low-cost countries.
1973:	The steady rise in workers' earnings that has marked the postwar period comes to a halt after the first of a series of oil crises sparks inflation and slows economic growth.
1979:	In the first phase of corporate restructuring, manufacturers begin cutting production jobs. General Motors, Ford and Chrysler eliminate 350,000 jobs over the next decade.
1980s:	Corporations eliminate millions of blue-collar jobs in an attempt to "restructure" their operations to become more competitive with foreign producers.
1981-82:	The worst recession since the Great Depression of the 1930s takes its greatest toll on the manufacturing industries of the Midwest, pushing unemployment among blue-collar workers to double-digit levels.
1985:	IBM begins cutting its work force.
1989:	A wave of bank consolidations and closures begins, resulting in the loss of more than 100,000 jobs in that sector.
1990s:	Restructuring begins to cut into white-collar employment as corporations eliminate management. Recession begins, accelerating the pace of layoffs. White-collar unemployment spreads throughout U.S.
1991:	Restructuring accelerates. U.S. corporations announce more than a half million permanent staff cuts affecting both production and white-collar workers.
1991:	General Motors says it will close 21 of its 125 North American plants and pare 74,000 positions, or 18 percent of its work force, over the next four years.
1992:	Congress approves legislation providing an additional 13 weeks of unemployment compensation.
1996:	AT&T announces layoffs of 40,000 by year's end.
2000s:	The global marketplace continues to transform American employment patterns.

Table 1 Continued

Brief History of Job Insecurity

Date	Event
2005:	According to the Labor Department, most of the 24.6 million new jobs that will be added to the U.S. economy over the 15-year period ending in 2005 will be high-skill positions requiring more training than most of the jobs they will replace.

Adapted from Cooper, Mary H. (1992). Jobs in the '90s. Congressional Quarterly Researcher, Feb. 28, 1992, Vol. 2(8), 171-187.

short-term contract expectancies, and receive lower pay than full-time vested employees.

The recession that was precipitated by the oil crisis of the 1970s lead to an early wave of layoffs. Many of these jobs were in the blue collar ranks in the manufacturing sector. Corporations began automating and moving production overseas to low-cost labor centers (Cooper, 1992).

Today, however, half of all displaced workers reported having last held a white collar job. A decade earlier, only a third of displaced workers reported having last worked at a white collar job (Gardner, 1995). At the same time, fewer married men are now receiving healthcare benefits from their employers. In 1979, 89 percent of married full-time working males received healthcare benefits. That figure dropped to 76.6 percent by 1992 (Olsen, 1995). Public opinion surveys now suggest that workers who experience layoffs, report vastly reduced expectations for future employment in terms of salary and status (New York Times, 1996).

While education has traditionally been the key to better paying positions, one of the interesting facts of the downsizing trend is that those who experienced layoffs were slightly more educated than those not touched by layoffs (New York Times, 1996).

The actual number of people who have joined the contingent work force is unknown. This is because the

Department of Labor compiles no statistical profile for this segment of the U.S. work-force. By some estimates, contingent workers may make up as much as twenty percent of the work-force (New York Times, 1996). The largest private employer in the United States today is Manpower Inc. with 767,000 employees (New York Times, 1996). Manpower Inc. is a temporary employment service. Contingent workers are now holding positions at much higher levels in organizations than simply clerical staff. For this reason, this research took into consideration differences in experiences of job insecurity that were related to having experienced a prior job loss.

Contributions of the Research

The first contribution of this research is the testing of a range of antecedents to job insecurity proposed by Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt (1984). No prior study has extensively tested this formulation.

The second contribution of this research is to evaluate the theorized influence of individual difference moderator variables upon the antecedents--job insecurity relationship (Ashford, Lee, and Bobko, 1989; Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt, 1984; McCarthy, 1992). This has yet to have been empirically tested in prior research.

The third contribution of this research is the potential to gain practical knowledge about how individuals

experience and react to job insecurity. Given the uncertainties of the modern U.S. job market including organizational decline, downsizing, merger activity, and global competition, very few individuals go to work with the assurance that their jobs are completely secure (BusinessWeek, 1996a).

In a deeper sense, the threat of job loss goes to the core of individual freedom which flows from job-based economic independence (Hall and Mirvis, 1996). What does this mean to individuals and how are they coping with this reality? We need to know if the modern job market has bred a pervasive climate of job insecure individuals who are resorting to their own devices rather than being guided by traditional employee/employer commitment. More attention needs to be given to how individuals are coping with these conditions both attitudinally and behaviorally. The research looks at coping-related individual responses to job insecurity. This is important because management must balance the increasingly difficult task of achieving efficient operations and retaining valuable personnel.

The fourth contribution of this research is the sampling focus upon middle managers because their ranks now face greater threats to job security than at any other time in recent history (Gardner, 1995).

The fifth contribution of this research is the testing of the extent to which job insecurity mediates indirect

effects of its antecedents upon outcome variables. This has been theorized but has yet to have been tested (Ashford et al., 1989; Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt, 1984; McCarthy, 1992). By testing this, we may gain greater clarity about how job insecurity functions within organizations.

The Structure of the Research

The structure of this research is as follows: Chapter 1 provides a review of the organizational literature which covers general theories that implicitly or explicitly address the topic of job insecurity. Chapter 2 provides a model of job insecurity. This includes a review of the variables included in the model and the deduction of research hypotheses. Chapter 3 provides a description of the research methods which specifies the sample, design, instrumentation, and analytic procedures. Chapter 4 presents the research results and Chapter 5 discusses the findings, implications for theory and practice, limitations of the research, areas of future research, and draws conclusions.

CHAPTER 1. LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter provides an overview of the relevant literatures that have either implicitly or explicitly addressed the topic of job insecurity. Included in this discussion are the following theories: Scientific management theory, administration theory, humanistic management theory, cognitive psychological theory, social psychological theory, theories of well-being, and stress theory.

While an explicit theory of job insecurity was presented only recently (Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt, 1984), the construct finds its roots in the concept of security. The dictionary definition of security is: "Freedom from risk or danger; safety and freedom from doubt, anxiety, or fear; confidence; and anything that gives or assures safety" (The American Heritage Dictionary, 1981).

Insecurity is an antonym of security. Job insecurity, in this sense, is a form of insecurity that expresses the perception that an individual is not free from the threat of job loss. Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt (1984) considered job security and job insecurity as different ends of the same continuum in which job insecurity was defined as "powerlessness to maintain desired continuity in a threatened job situation" (p. 438). Caplan, Cobb, French, Harrison, and Pinneau (1975) also described some of the general aspects of job insecurity such as the perception

that desired advancement in a firm is threatened and, further, there is a possibility of being laid off within a year.

While Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt (1984) offered the first comprehensive framework to explain job insecurity, numerous earlier theories of motivation dealt with the subject. Most of these theories assumed that individuals are motivated to work because it, at least minimally, provides individuals the means (compensation) to meet private economic commitments (cf. Thompson and Davis, 1956).

Briefly, motivation theories hold that there are goals or states that individuals seek to attain. The theories (often from differing perspectives) identify the things or situations that meet human needs or the ends (learned through socialization) that individuals value. Motivation theories link the attainment or failure to meet goals or desired states with attainment or failure to attain well-being. The concept of job insecurity is inferred when the individual perceives incongruence between motivating forces for working and perceived environmental cues or internal states which threaten those motives and, hence, well-being.

Scientific Management (Taylor, 1911) is one of the earliest theories of management to address human motivation. Taylor assumed economic incentives such as higher pay would be motivating. Although the theory principally evaluated physiological capacities of workers via time and motion

studies, Taylor implicitly addressed the topic of job security in terms of workers' desire to make the most pay for their effort. Bonuses are designed to upwardly compensate workers who exceed identified output standards. Taylor's ideas have been revisited by many subsequent theorists and the linkage to job security has persevered in numerous literatures including that of Goal Setting theory (Locke, 1978). Locke pointed out that employee acceptance of assigned goals or tasks is partly conditioned by a number of factors including trust of management and the perceived legitimacy of management's demands. Job insecurity can be inferred as having the affect of reducing trust of management and perceived legitimacy of management demands.

The Administration theory of Fayol (1949) and Gulick (1937) also implicitly deals with job security. Administration theory holds that organizational survival is premised upon departmentation of structure and specialization of labor. The individual is viewed as a stable condition of efficient functioning to be utilized in a least cost manner. Job security, in a psychological sense, is not the immediate concern of administration theorists. However, emphasis upon routinizing and specialization suggests that employment continuity serves to drive down costs. Implicit in administration theory is the assumption that employee retention (job security) benefits the organization.

Fayol believed that a manager needs a period of time to understand the strengths and weaknesses of the organization in order to formulate a good plan of action. Further, organizations which fail to grant the manager sufficient time to understand the organization, may lead the manager to infer that their role is temporary rather than permanent. Fayol suggested that human nature will bring a manager to lose enthusiasm under such conditions: "Without continuity of tenure on the part of management personnel, there can be no good plan of action" (Fayol, 1949, p. 25).

To a great extent, the early treatment of job security reflects an economic or deterministic view of man. Barnard (1938) was the first to state the inducements/contributions proposition of the organization/employee relationship. Individuals, according to Barnard, will not be motivated unless inducements (incentives) are above their level of indifference. March and Simon (1958) reasserted the fundamental relevance of this proposition as did later contributors to the organizational attachment literature. Thompson (1967), in his thinking about buffering the operational core from environmental uncertainty, implied the importance of job security, albeit indirectly. Buffering can be viewed as the provision of employment continuity and similarly, job security.

Humanistic, cognitive, and social psychological theories also provide conceptualizations that are related to

job insecurity. Maslow's (1954) hierarchy of needs is one of the earliest content theories of motivation to specify the need for security as a lower order source of human motivation. The need for security is the second among a tier of five described needs (physiological, safety and security, love and belongingness, self-esteem, and self-actualization). Maslow envisioned the need for security crossing over to work settings, though the theory did not focus specifically on organizations (Miner, 1980). Although Maslow's theory is based on clinical evidence from observation of his psycho-therapeutic clients, independent empirical support has not provided evidence of the factor structure of the theory (Wahba and Bridwell, 1976). Despite this, the theory's normative appeal has lead to its perseverance within the human relations school of organizational theory and it has served as a prescriptive guide for management in personnel decision making (Miner, 1980). Thus, the hierarchy of needs has endured as a social theory that is prominent in current text book coverage of organizational theory and in practice.

Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman (1959) developed a two-factor theory of motivation that specifically focused on work organizations. Job security figured into their thinking as a first-order factor that they described with the term: 'Hygiene'. Job security is one among several first order factors such as salary, supervision, policy,

working conditions, and benefits. Job security is defined as features of the job which lead to assurance for continued employment, either within the same company or within the same type of work or profession. Herzberg and his colleagues considered job security to be an extrinsic factor that was not, in and of itself, motivating. Rather, job security and other first order factors are necessary to keep individuals from becoming dissatisfied.

Hackman and Oldham's (1975) Job Characteristics Model emphasizes the link between job features and critical psychological states of meaningfulness, responsibility, and knowledge of results. These states are, in turn, linked to personal and work outcomes. Job security, as in the cases of Maslow's and Herzberg's thinking, is considered a lower order need which is largely satisfied by available economic conditions. Motivation, therefore, does not flow directly from job security but rather from fulfillment of growth and psychological needs (Miner, 1980).

Job features such as role ambiguity (Rizzo, House, and Lirtzman, 1970) have also been associated with job insecurity. Role ambiguity arises when individuals perceive there to be inadequate or misleading information regarding role performance. It is important to note that perceptions of role ambiguity and objective role ambiguity need not be one and the same. From a cognitive standpoint, role ambiguity may lead individuals to lack clarity about how to

go about their jobs. Obviously, individuals are hired to do something. Whether they are informed how to do it or not, they may still be responsible for performance and the consequences of non-performance. The experience of unclear role-performance linkages, which typifies role ambiguity, can, therefore, be highly frustrating (Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, and Snoek, 1981).

Cognitive theories of motivation such as expectancy theory also deal with job security. Expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964) is rooted in ideas traceable to Barnard (1938) and March and Simon (1958). In brief, the theory holds that individuals think and act calculatedly. They continually weigh inducements (what the organizations gives to them) with contributions (what they give to the organization). Vroom articulated these ideas in his Valence-Instrumentality-Expectancy (VIE) theory. VIE theory treats motivation as a multiplicative function of the expectancy that effort is linked to performance that is instrumental to desired and valued outcomes. Job security figures as a second-level outcome likely to be valent (valued) for the individual. Thus, the theory predicts that those who are insecure about their jobs may perceive that performance is not instrumental to obtaining desired outcomes. Interestingly, expectancy theory's cognitive explanations of job insecurity are consistent with stress theory formulations where stress occurs when individuals believe

that the environment provides insufficient supplies to meet the individual's motives (Van Harrison, 1985). This will be expanded upon shortly.

Social-psychological theories may also be viewed as related to job insecurity. The organizational commitment literature, for example, has established a strong empirical relationship between elements of the construct (i.e., loyalty and identification) and desired organizational outcomes such as reduced turnover and absenteeism (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Mowday, Porter, and Steers, 1982). Social psychologists have argued, as well, that employer/employee relationships are fundamentally a psychological contract of reciprocal duty (Schein, 1965). Employees are bound to their firms through effort and identification with the organization and, in return, receive status, economic rewards, and sustained employment. This premise of underlying attachment is common to the literature on organizational careers as well. Job security is subsumed as an assumption of career advancement in that individuals advance in orderly fashion through the organizational structure with the knowledge that their job is secure in each of the steps along the way (Milkovich, Anderson, and Greenhalgh, 1976).

Self-determination theory focuses on the intrinsic meaning that individuals derive from exercising a sense of choice and personal initiative in regulating their own

actions (Deci, Connell, and Ryan, 1989). The roots of this theory can be traced to Maslow's hierarchy of needs (1954) as well as the two factor theory (Herzberg et al., 1959), Rotter's locus of control (1966), and the need for autonomy (cf. Spector, 1986). Self-determination theory is related to an individual's desire for control but it is not the same concept. Control is the belief that an individual's behaviors reliably lead to outcomes, whereas self-determination refers to the freedom of initiating behavior (Deci et al., 1989). Self-determination is an important linking theory that helps to explain the psychological experience of job insecurity. To a great extent, modern conditions impede the exercise of self-determination and threaten fairness assumptions that underlie humanist, cognitive, and organizational attachment theories. Job insecurity may be one of the consequences of reduced self-determination.

Additionally, it must be recognized that job loss represents more than simply an economic threat to the individual. Research has already shown that a vast majority of U.S. workers derive enormous pleasure and meaning in their lives from their work (Kahn et al., 1981). Losing a job means losing routines, social networks and, potentially, an element of one's identity. Kahn et al. (1981) noted that many workers reported missing their friends and colleagues more than anything else as a result of job loss.

Not all theories of motivation, however, emphasize fairness. The political school embraces the idea that conflict is natural and job insecurity can be inferred as an outcome of power struggles which benefit the organization (Salancik and Pfeffer, 1974). The psychoanalytic school also suggests that individuals may distort reality or follow ego driven courses. Mechanisms such as denial can act to delude those whose jobs are insecure into thinking that they are, in fact, secure. Theories of cognitive biases can also explain how individuals might underestimate or wrongly attribute the degree or sources of job insecurity (Greenwald, 1980).

Yet theories which are premised on fairness such as human relations (Maslow, 1954), organizational commitment (Mowday et al., 1982), equity theory (Adams, 1965), procedural justice (Korsgaard, Schweiger, and Sapienza, 1995) are mainstream features of the organizational literatures even though their principal constructs may now, to an increasing degree, be viewed as normative statements about desirable working conditions. In this sense, job insecurity may be part of something even greater than economic fall-out. It may be part of the perception of a generalized moral decline marked by an absence trustworthy role models, close peers, and a supportive reference group (Mirvis and Hall, 1994)

Apparent in this description of work is the assumption that individuals face greater collective uncertainty than ever before. Job insecurity may now be the norm rather than the exception in the workplace. How individuals are coping with this is a pressing question of theoretical and practical importance. One of the newer views is that job insecurity is a source of stress (Armstrong-Stassen, 1994; Caplan et al., 1975; Cooper-Schneider, 1989; Latack, 1986; Leana and Feldman, 1988; MacNeil, 1994; Payne and Hartley, 1987; Roskies and Louis-Guerin, 1990).

A brief review of the stress literature may be useful in characterizing the functioning of job insecurity and how it relates to its outcomes.

The stress literature has offered three approaches to explaining the condition of stress. Lazarus and Folkman (1984) summarize these as: 1) stimulus theory of stress, 2) the response theory of stress, and 3) a relational view of stress. The relational view is perhaps most relevant to the understanding of job insecurity, however, a summary of each of the stress literatures follows.

In the stimulus view, stress is described in terms of the events (external or internal) which individuals perceive to be threatening or harmful. The stimulus view of stress emphasizes the development of taxonomies of stressful events. For example, stressors have been described as being acute time-limited, sequenced, chronic intermittent, or

chronic (Elliott and Eisdorfer, 1982). Lazarus and Folkman (1984) criticize this approach because it fails to account for the way in which individuals perceive events. Thus one individual may perceive an event to be stressful, while another individual would not.

The response view of stress emphasizes how stress is experienced. Seyle (1980), who exemplifies contributors to the response view of stress, defined stress as the non-specific response of the body to any demand. One of the criticisms of this view, however, is that it is response dependent. Thus, the response view emphasizes the stress perception rather than the stress producing event (i.e., the stimulus view).

The relational view of stress addresses shortcomings in the stimulus and response views of stress. The relational view is an interactionist perspective in which stress is viewed in terms of a person-environment relationship. The relational view holds that individuals make cognitive appraisals of the environment which are defined as "an evaluative process that determines why and to what extent a particular transaction or series of transactions between the person and the environment is stressful" (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984, p. 19). Events are stressful to individuals who perceive them to be so. The cognitive appraisal process is central to understanding why one individual perceives events as stressful and another does not. Job insecurity,

which Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt (1984) assert to be a cognitive assessment of threat, is consistent with the interactionist perspective of the relational view of stress.

Stress theory also integrates with job insecurity in that it postulates coping reactions to cognitive appraisals. Lazarus and Folkman (1984) define coping as "the process through which the individual manages the demands of the person-environment relationship that are appraised as stressful and the emotions they generate" (p. 19). Coping responses have been described by numerous conceptual frameworks (Dewe and Guest, 1990), however, no consensus currently exists. Common to most of these frameworks, though, are three types of coping responses: 1) action focused on the stressor, 2) cognitive reappraisal which focuses on one's thoughts about the stressors, and 3) symptom management which focuses on the stress symptoms or psychophysiological states (Latack, 1986).

One should note, however, that despite functional similarities between job insecurity and the relational view of stress, the constructs outline different conceptual space. Job insecurity pertains to thoughts about one's ability to keep one's job, whereas job stress pertains to one's ability to do one's job. Job stress occurs when a job does not "provide supplies to meet the individual's motives and also to the extent that the abilities of the individual fall below those demands of the job that are prerequisite to

receiving supplies" (Van Harrison, 1985). Job insecurity occurs when an individual thinks he will not be able to keep his job or job features.

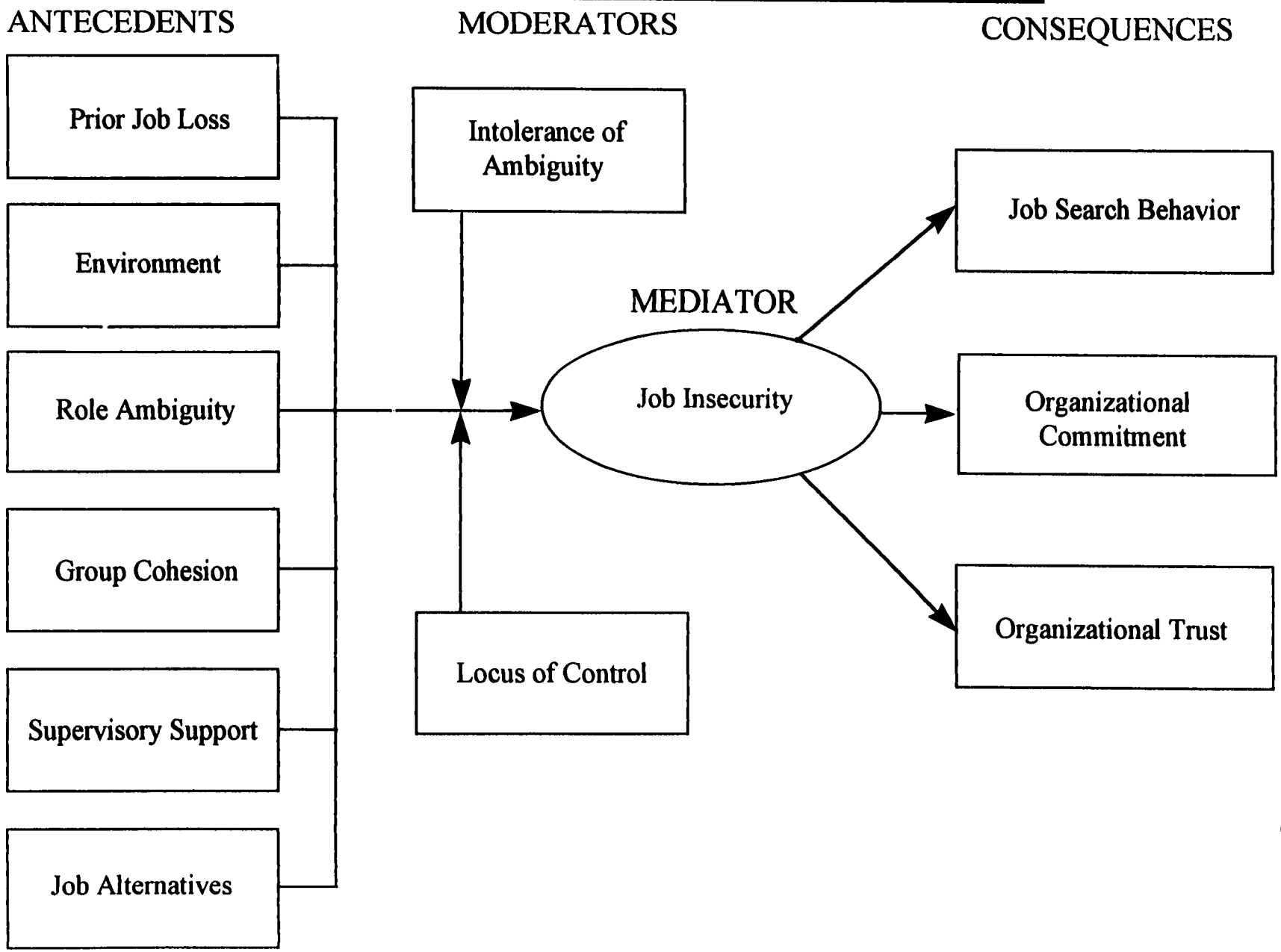
A model of job insecurity is presented in Chapter 2 that draws upon stress-related coping responses described by Latack (1986).

CHAPTER 2. A MODEL OF JOB INSECURITY

2.1 Proposed Research Model

Figure 1 illustrates a research model of the antecedents and consequences of job insecurity. Three categories of variables are specified to be tested as antecedents of job insecurity in accordance with a conceptual framework developed by Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt (1984). These are prior job loss, environmental conditions, and firm level variables. Two categories of coping consequence variables are included (Latack, 1986): Action focused coping and cognitive reappraisal. Symptom management, Latack's third category of coping reactions, was not included because it focuses on physiological responses to stress such as going to a health club or meditating. Because of the difficulty of linking such coping responses to organizationally relevant outcomes, symptom management is not examined here.

FIGURE 1: MODEL OF JOB INSECURITY



2.2 Variables to Be Studied

The purpose of this section is to discuss the variables included in the research model. As appropriate, hypotheses are deduced from supporting theory, empirical evidence, and conceptual rationales.

Job Insecurity

Job insecurity is the focal variable in this research. Although it has been characterized as a mediating variable, empirical evidence to support this hypothesis is lacking (Ashford et al., 1989; Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt, 1984; McCarthy, 1992). Mediator variables are those which serve as the "generative mechanism through which the focal independent variable is able to influence the dependent variable of interest" (Baron and Kenny, 1989, p. 1173). Complete mediation is said to occur when the influence of the antecedents on the outcome variable is fully transmitted through the mediator variable. Specification of a mediated model implies the expectation of causal relations. From an empirical perspective, a characteristic of mediated relations is the finding of covariance between the antecedents and the mediator, between the mediator and the outcome variable and, additionally, between the antecedents and the outcome variable (James and Brett, 1984). Unlike purely correlational relations, mediation specifies the way in which variables are related. Thus one would expect the

following linear relations to adhere in complete mediation models: 1) the antecedents influence the mediator and 2) the mediator influences the outcome variable. After controlling for the above two influences, one would not expect to find significant linear relations between the antecedents and the outcome variables.

The extent to which job insecurity is a generative mechanism of the antecedents/outcomes relationships is unknown. It is also possible that job insecurity only partially mediates these relations. Baron and Kenny (1989) suggest that partial mediation is more common in the social sciences than complete mediation. Thus, some direct relationship between the antecedents and the outcome variables is plausible. None the less, theory positions job insecurity as a mediator variable. This makes reasonably good conceptual sense. First, job insecurity is a cognitive variable. It is thought to follow from perceptions of environmental threat. Already implied here is causal ordering. Second, the level of job insecurity influences the outcome variables. Individuals who are worried about their ability to keep their job or important job features then take steps to cope by initiating adaptive behaviors or altering organizationally relevant attitudes. Again, causal relations are implied. The actual extent to which job insecurity acts as a complete mediating variable is an empirical question to be tested here. This investigation

must therefore be considered somewhat exploratory in nature.

The importance of this investigation is its attempt to explicate the way in which well established relationships between specific variables occur. Role ambiguity, for example, is known to be related to organizational commitment, organizational trust, and intention to leave the organization (Jackson and Schuler, 1985). It may be that these are direct relationships. It is also highly plausible that the experience of not knowing what one is supposed to do at work leads to fears about one's job security. Following the second line of reasoning, it would seem likely that it is the assessment of job insecurity that transmits the influence of role ambiguity to consequential behaviors and attitudes. If this is the case, then it stands to reason that job insecurity is an important mediating variable.

The structure of this research follows the job insecurity framework first outlined by Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt (1984). The authors sought to clarify the meaning of job insecurity and argued that it is a complex multi-dimensional construct. Until this point, then existing conceptualizations of job insecurity had been unidimensional, often operationalized by single item measures.

Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt believed that job insecurity is more than the perceived threat of job loss but also

includes thoughts about losing valued job features such as pay, status, opportunity for promotion, and access to resources. The authors identified numerous sources of threats including organizational decline, organizational reorganization, technological development, and physical danger (Greenhalgh, 1982; Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt, 1984).

Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt believed that a new measure of job insecurity is needed because existing measures such as Caplan et al. (1975) were limited in scope and "cannot be captured by a global variable" (p. 440). The purpose of their article was to explore a richer content domain of the construct and to provide a conceptual basis for the development of a more precise measurement instrument.

Drawing upon numerous motivation and individual needs theories including the need for security (Herzberg, 1959; Maslow, 1954), and the need for economic security (Blum, 1960; Super, 1957), Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt argued that job insecurity represents an interaction of three factors: 1) the threat to job features, 2) the threat to the entire job, and 3) the degree to which the individual perceives that he/she is powerless to counteract threats to job features and the entire job.

Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt characterized the threats to the entire job as more severe than the threat to job features because one can lose one's job features but still maintain organizational membership. Further, loss of the

entire job entails potential loss of career advancement and attendant material compensation. They did not specify, however, any means for weighting the relative differences of importance of losing job features versus losing an entire job. Additionally, it is unclear how powerlessness to counteract threats to important job features should be measured. Ashford et al. (1989) used a general weighting system. General perceived powerlessness served as the weight by which threats to the job and job features were scaled. This is potentially problematic if powerlessness is conceptualized as operating specifically rather than generally. In such a case, separate measures of powerlessness would need to be associated with each threat to the job or job features.

The research which has tested Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt's job insecurity construct and its sources has been rather limited. Ashford et al. (1989) utilized Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt's conceptual framework of job insecurity to develop a self-report instrument, the Job Insecurity Scale (JIS). The JIS demonstrated reasonable construct validity in a test by the authors. McCarthy (1992) also tested the Ashford et al. (1989) measure and reported satisfactory construct validity and convergence with other known measures of the construct, (i.e., Caplan et al., 1975). Cole (1987) also developed a measure of Perceived Job Insecurity (PJI) based upon the Greenhalgh and

Rosenblatt (1984) framework and reported acceptable reliability and construct validity. Despite these favorable reports of the JIS and the PJI, they have seen limited empirical utilization, perhaps because the item counts of the full JIS and PJI scales are 57 and 98 respectively, compared to 4 items for Caplan et al. (1975). None the less, these measures are the first to treat job insecurity as something other than a unidimensional construct. Further, job insecurity became a focal construct in recent research efforts.

In describing the three elements of job insecurity, Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt reasoned that job insecurity operates similarly to expectancy theory frameworks (Vroom, 1964). Thus, threat of loss to one's job features and the entire job are both functions of 1) the importance placed by the individual on the threat multiplied by the 2) likelihood of the threat. Both multiplicative products are summed to yield the total severity of threat. Job insecurity is therefore derived by taking the severity of the threat and multiplying it by the perceived powerlessness of the individual to counteract the threat. Thus, Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt were the first to present job insecurity as a highly complex multi-dimensional construct (p. 443.)

Initial research efforts to explore the predictions of the Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt model have been limited in scope. In particular, only a few of the sources of job

insecurity specified in their model have been empirically tested. Therefore, numerous theorized antecedents to job insecurity are examined here.

Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt also present a small body of evidence that links job insecurity to organizational consequences such as reduced work effort, propensity to leave, and resistance to change. Ashford et al. (1989) tested a number of consequences of job insecurity and found it related to intentions to quit ($r = .46$), decline in commitment ($r = -.47$), decline in organizational trust ($r = -.51$), and decline in satisfaction ($r = -.45$).

This research also focuses on outcomes of job insecurity utilizing a stress and coping framework (Latack, 1986; Lazarus and Folkman, 1984). These responses are believed to be important for identifying practical implications for management. For example, does job insecurity decrease individual trust of and commitment to the organization?

Finally, Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt also specified several moderators of the relationship between antecedents of job insecurity and job insecurity. These will be discussed in the next section following discussion of the antecedents and consequences of job insecurity.

Antecedent Variables

Prior Job Loss

Because job insecurity has become a topic of media attention, and evidence from national polls and national labor statistics has shown that a great many Americans have faced layoffs, this research seeks to understand differences in job insecurity that are related to prior experience of job loss. Two arguments can reasonably be advanced: 1) job insecurity increases with the threat or experience of job loss and 2) individuals deny the threat of job loss or, after job loss, by virtue of the experience, are now better able to cope with the vagaries of the job market and become more adaptable, hence experience less job insecurity.

In support of the first argument, Jick (1985) has suggested that the prior experience of job loss is often accompanied by the experience of emotional depression, withdrawal, and reduced aspiration. Because the emotional and economic burdens of losing one's job are considerable, it can be expected to leave a lasting impression on those who have experienced job loss. This impression tends to increase an individual's sense of job insecurity compared to those who have not lost their job.

On the other hand, anecdotal evidence (New York Times, 1996) has already shown that job holders often deny the very real threat of job loss right up to the day that they are laid off. Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt (1984) also suggest

that ambiguous information about objective threats to job incumbency can lead to perceptual defense. Yet once job loss occurs, the evidence seems to suggest that the experience often precedes negative emotional effects (Jick, 1985). While it is possible that some individuals may become so-called 'battle-hardened' and more capable of dealing with uncertainties of the job market, most can be expected to become more wary--even cynical in their assessments of employers. Based on evidence and the aforementioned rationale, the following hypothesis is forwarded:

Hypothesis 1: Prior job loss is positively related to job insecurity.

Environmental Conditions

The environment is a factor that is theorized to influence job insecurity (Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt, 1984) and is defined here as the perception of general environmental conditions that influence job insecurity. Among these influences are mergers and acquisitions (Schweiger and Denisi, 1991; Schweiger and Ivancevich, 1985; Walsh, 1988), general economic conditions, strength of the capital markets, and the strength of the labor market (BusinessWeek, 1996; New York Times, 1996), the likelihood of downsizing (Brockner, Wiesenfeld, Grover, and Martin, 1993; Robertson, 1987), technological changes and global

competitive influences on labor costs (Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt, 1984; Robertson, 1987).

The environment is potentially a source of threat to an individual in that it may directly influence an individual's ability to control or determine their own fate (Deci et al., 1989). For example, mergers have a direct impact on corporate personnel. An employee's job security could easily be undermined by restructuring that often follows merger activity. In 1994, 1995, and 1996 record level merger activity occurred in the United States (BusinessWeek, 1997). From the human resource management's perspective, the question following a merger is who stays and who goes? Understandably, this is also a question on the minds of employees. Mowday et al. (1982) suggest that involuntary loss of one's job can be one of the most stressful experiences an individual can undergo. The following hypothesis is therefore deduced:

Hypothesis 1A: Environmental conditions are positively related to job insecurity.

Firm Level

Role Ambiguity

Role ambiguity is a perceived job condition that has been shown to influence a number of individual attitudes and organizational outcomes. Role ambiguity is defined as "a direct function of the discrepancy between information

available to the person and that which is required for adequate performance of his role" (Kahn, et al., 1981, p. 73). Information shortfalls can result from any number of changes in organizational structure due to growth or reorganization and also from increases in complexity such as technological changes (Rizzo et al., 1970). While all organizations have, to some extent, potential sources of ambiguity, role ambiguity speaks to something which represents a breakdown in the means-ends continuum of the work role itself. When Rizzo et al. (1970) first measured role ambiguity, they found it related to a number of negative consequences including increased job anxiety, lowered job satisfaction in the form of recognition and pay, reduced pleasantness of the environment, lowered job security, and lowered self-confidence. In addition, a substantial body of evidence has linked role ambiguity to reduced organizational commitment and increased intentions to leave the organization (Jackson and Schuler, 1985). When role ambiguity is perceived, a poor outlook towards the organization usually follows. Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt (1984) reason that unclear expectancies reduce an individual's sense of control in a job situation. Further, role ambiguity threatens the individual's self-confidence and as a result undermines the ability of individuals to predict outcomes in an organization (Rizzo et al., 1970). Taken broadly, evidence and theory suggest that role

ambiguity threatens many elements of stability in the work place. The following hypothesis is therefore deduced:

Hypothesis 1B: Role ambiguity is positively related to job insecurity.

Supervisory Support

The evidence and rationales from numerous studies suggest that a supportive supervisory relationship is conducive to an individual's sense of situational control and self-determination (Ashford, et. al., 1989; Deci et al., 1989; Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt, 1984; Leana and Ivancevich, 1987). Further, recent research into commitment has linked the supervisory assessment of employee commitment to employee desired outcomes such as promotions, request fulfillment, and favorable performance appraisals (McFarlane Shore, Barksdale, and Shore, 1995). This implies that employees who value better treatment should attempt to woo supervisors by showing them that they are committed to the organization. It is reasonable, therefore, that employee perceptions of supervisory support should reduce their sense of job insecurity. By contrast, Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt (1984) suggest that superiors who appear arbitrary in their evaluations and capricious in their decision making are likely to increase employee job insecurity. Formally stated, the following hypothesis is deduced:

Hypothesis 1C: Supervisory support is negatively related to job insecurity.

Work Group Cohesion

Mirvis and Hall (1994) have argued that the world of work is undergoing a fundamental transformation. From a group perspective, they suggest that employees who desire group attachment and identification may find themselves without a suitable reference group. Group cohesiveness is also eroded by downsizing and reorganizations in which remaining employees have reported experiencing survivor guilt (Brockner, Davy, and Carter, 1985). In this research, group cohesiveness is defined as behaviors in a group context which result from common needs created by environmental conditions (Klein, 1971).

It should be noted that early stress literature suggests that group cohesiveness is an outcome of threatening situations. Unionization, for example, has been a traditional means of combatting job insecurity through group cohesion. Most research suggests that groups increase cohesiveness under threat (Klein, 1971). For example, fighter bomber crews became increasingly cohesive when their safety depended upon one another. However, some research suggested that threat leads to less cohesiveness. For example, subjects in a simulated fire study demonstrated self-protective behavior rather than cohesive behavior

(Klein, 1971). Feldman (1984) also suggested that groups may be influenced by group norms particularly when they facilitate group survival.

Anecdotal evidence has suggested that fear of layoffs has bred a cautiousness between peers who might normally enjoy cordial and informal relations (New York Times, 1996). Therefore, the absence of group cohesiveness should be related to higher job insecurity.

Although direction of the influence of threat upon group cohesiveness has been varied, the framework proposed by Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt (1984) has been selected here because group cohesion is indicative of lower job insecurity.

The following hypothesis is deduced:

Hypothesis 1D: Work group cohesion is negatively related to job insecurity.

Job Alternatives

The threat of job loss is a common experience in the current job market. The extent to which one perceives there to be available outside job alternatives should reduce the severity of the threat of job loss (Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt, 1984). Availability of job alternatives should also be consistent with the experience of an increased sense of self-determination (Deci et al., 1989). The following hypothesis is deduced:

Hypothesis 1E: The perceived availability of job alternatives is negatively related to job insecurity.

Moderators of Job Insecurity

In order to aid the interpretability of the hypothesized antecedents--job insecurity relationships, it was necessary to account for factors such as individual differences which might act as moderators of these relationships. A moderator is a variable "that affects the direction and/or strength of the relation between an independent or predictor variable and a dependent or criterion variable" (Baron and Kenny, 1986, p. 1174). "A variable z is a moderator if the relationship between two (or more) other variables, say x and y, is a function of the level of z" (James and Brett, 1984, p. 310). If, for example, role ambiguity is related to job insecurity, it is important to determine the extent to which this relationship is influenced by individual difference variables such as intolerance of ambiguity. It is plausible that individuals who are highly intolerant of ambiguity are more likely to rate role ambiguity as more threatening than those low on intolerance for ambiguity and, therefore, more likely to experience higher job insecurity. This is important to flush out because job insecurity is a function of the cognitive sense making process in which each individual, alone, evaluates the sources of threat that lead to the

perception of job insecurity. The extent to which this process is influenced by individual difference moderator variables is critical to our understanding of the conditions under which job insecurity operates, and understanding this may potentially contribute to greater theoretical precision. Further, failure to include important variables in a model undermines the value of an investigation due to biased statistical results which lead to unwarranted inferences of causal relationships (James and Brett, 1984).

Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt (1984) identify personality dimensions as likely to influence the antecedents--job insecurity relationship. Given the importance of potential moderator variables to the antecedents--job insecurity relationship, two moderators are selected here for empirical investigation: Locus of control and intolerance of ambiguity.

Locus of Control

Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt (1984) identified locus of control (Rotter, 1966) as a potential moderator of the antecedents--job insecurity relationship. Locus of control is the generalized expectancy that rewards or outcomes in life are controlled by an individual's actions or by external forces. Some individuals (internals) view the outcomes of their efforts as strongly attributable to those efforts; others (externals) take the opposite position and

view outcomes as largely unrelated to their efforts (cf. Lefcourt, 1991). Locus of control is thus an important variable to consider because it directly addresses the way in which individual differences may influence the degree to which antecedents to job insecurity may be perceived as threatening. Internal locus of control, for example, has been associated with greater well being and more active pursuit of goals, whereas external locus of control has been associated with anxiety, depression, and the inability to cope with stressful life experiences (Lefcourt, 1991).

To date, there has been no empirical test of the moderating role of locus of control. Ashford et al. (1989) and McCarthy (1992) treated locus of control as an antecedent variable though it is depicted by Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt as a moderator variable. This study, therefore, is the first to examine the moderating role of locus of control on the antecedents--job insecurity relationship. The following hypothesis is therefore forwarded:

Hypothesis 2: Locus of control moderates the antecedents--job insecurity relationship.

Intolerance of Ambiguity

The degree to which individuals differ on their intolerance of ambiguous situations is also of importance. Intolerance of ambiguity is the "tendency to perceive (i.e., interpret) ambiguous situations as sources of threat"

(Budner, 1962, p. 29). Ambiguous situations are those which "cannot be structured or categorized by the individual because of the lack of sufficient cues" (Budner, 1962, p. 30). Ambiguity may be categorized as situations that are novel, complex, or insoluble. Individual reactions to ambiguity are varied. Intolerance of ambiguity sets a sort of limit on how individuals respond to various forms of ambiguous cues. As such, it is considered a relatively stable characteristic of individual perceptual processes.

The degree to which intolerance of ambiguity influences the antecedents/job insecurity relationship is important to investigate. It may very well be that the degree of job insecurity that results from environmental cues is a function of how threatening ambiguity is to an individual (Norton, 1975). If this is found to be the case, then job insecurity theory would need to include a dispositional component that will condition the degree to which environmental indicators may predict job insecurity.

For the aforementioned reasons, the following hypothesis is deduced:

Hypothesis 2A: Intolerance of ambiguity moderates the antecedents--job insecurity relationship.

Dependent Variables

This research utilizes Latack's (1986) conceptual framework of coping for its investigation of the

consequences of job insecurity. The focus will be upon the first two elements of the framework (action focused coping and cognitive reappraisal) as they are believed to be most related to the direction of this research. The third element of the Latack framework (stress management) focuses on coping strategies for dealing with the experience of stress. While this is an important area of future research, this investigation focuses on organizationally relevant behaviors and attitudes.

Job Search Behavior

Job insecurity is perceived as a direct threat to job incumbency and can prompt individuals to deal with the threat in a number of ways. One of the means is to act proactively and deal directly with the source of the threat. Latack (1986) calls behavioral efforts to deal with the stressor action focused coping. Lazarus and Folkman (1984) also deal with this form of coping although they refer to it as problem focused coping.

Job search behavior has already been shown to be one of the best indicators of voluntary turnover (Kopelman, Rovenpor, and Millsap, 1992). Because job insecurity is related to anxiety (Orphen, 1993) and anxiety is an uncomfortable experience which individuals generally attempt to reduce, it is reasoned that individuals cope with the threat of job insecurity by exercising job search behavior.

Ashford et al. (1989) and McCarthy (1992) have found job insecurity to be positively correlated with intentions to quit. Stated formally, the following hypothesis is offered:

Hypothesis 3: Job insecurity is positively related to job search behavior.

Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment refers to employee identification with and desired involvement in an organization (Mowday, et al., 1982). Initial empirical evidence has suggested that job insecurity is negatively related to organizational commitment (Ashford, et al., 1989; McCarthy, 1992). Latack's (1986) coping framework suggests that one of the responses to threatening or stressful situations is to perform a cognitive reevaluation of the situation or conditions that are stressful. In this sense, job insecurity may act to reduce an individual's identification with an organization. On the other hand, it has also been suggested that the threat of job insecurity can be dealt with by denying its existence and maintaining a high level of organizational commitment (Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt, 1984). However, organizational commitment to a threatened job situation may be a temporary response. Reactance theory (Wortman and Brehm, 1975) suggests that individuals may increase their effort or identification for a short period, but if results are not forthcoming, they

will not sustain effort. Additionally, job insecurity represents a loss of control of the individual over their perceived job continuity. Procedural justice models reason that individuals develop a general assessment of the degree to which organizational decision making is fair and consistent with known decision patterns (Davy, Kinicki, and Scheck, 1991). This assessment is related to the individual's sense of control in the organization and this, in turn, is related to their subsequent organizational commitment. The linkage to job insecurity follows. Because job insecurity is a sense of powerlessness to resist threats to job continuity or job features, it too is indicative of reduced personal control. This experience is anxiety provoking and can reasonably be believed to contribute to reduced organizational commitment. As a result of the aforementioned empirical evidence and rationales, the following hypothesis is forwarded:

Hypothesis 3A: Job insecurity is negatively related to organizational commitment.

Organizational Trust

Trust is an individual attitude which is defined as a generalized expectancy held by an individual that the word, promise, oral or written statement of another individual or group can be relied on (Rotter, 1967). Trust develops over time and is enhanced through a dynamic reciprocal process.

Briefly, both an individual and the hiring firm take risks in the joining and selection decisions. An individual risks not receiving the expected material and intrinsic value of joining. A company risks hiring an employee who fails to deliver the requisite knowledge, skills, abilities, and intangible social compatibilities.

From the employee's standpoint, the degree to which the organization is believed to fulfill on-going obligations is associated with increased trust. Organizations that fulfill their employment contract increase an employee's sense of job security and this is positively related to trust. Prior research has already found organizational trust to be negatively related to job insecurity (Ashford et al., 1989). Regular satisfactory fulfillment of transactions between an individual and an organization should contribute to heightened trust. Therefore, the following hypothesis is forwarded:

Hypothesis 3B: Job insecurity is negatively related to organizational trust.

Mediated Models

Three additional hypotheses are forwarded to test the mediated models. Theory has already identified job insecurity as a mediating variable though evidence for this function is lacking. The question raised here is to what degree does job insecurity stand between antecedent

perceptions and outcome variables? The following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 4: Job insecurity mediates the relationship between antecedents of job insecurity and job search behavior.

Hypothesis 4A: Job insecurity mediates the relationship between antecedents of job insecurity and organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 4B: Job insecurity mediates the relationship between antecedents of job insecurity and organizational trust.

Control Variables

Ashford et al. (1989) cite Mitchell's (1985) concern that alternative explanations of the hypothesized relationships be ruled out by controlling for these influences in advance. Therefore data were collected on four variables which were thought to have such an influence. These were: Age, sex, education, and tenure. These variables followed from the model investigated by Ashford et al. (1989).

CHAPTER 3. METHODS

3.1 Subjects

The participants in this research were 276 lower, middle, and senior managers. The participants were believed to be representative of a cross section of management ranks. Table 2 illustrates the distribution of participants by their self-reported rank. Participants identified themselves on a scale from one to ten, with one being the lowest rank (entry level) and ten being the highest (Chief Executive Officer). These managers were, on average, 38 years old; fifty-nine percent were male, forty-one percent were female; they were employed for their current firms, on average, 6 years; and sixty-six percent held Masters Degrees, twenty six percent held Undergraduate degrees and the balance (seven percent) held either professional or medical degrees (Tables 2-6).

This population was targeted because the purpose of this research was to identify antecedents and consequences of job insecurity among white collar workers. This group is now threatened by layoffs more than their blue collar counterparts (New York Times, 1996). This can partly be inferred from U.S. government labor data. The Bureau of Labor Statistics predicts that the growth rate of jobs in administrative and managerial segment of the job market will slow down during the 11 years of 1995 to 2005 compared to the 11 years of 1983 to 1994 (Silvestri, 1995). Further,

managers with advanced degrees such as masters level degrees will earn as much as a third more than managers with only bachelors degrees making managers with masters level degrees potential targets of continued cost cutting at the managerial level (Hecker, 1992).

Access to the targeted population was gained by drawing upon a data base of graduates of two masters level programs of a major northeastern business school. These included graduates of an Executive MBA (EXMBA) program and an Industrial Labor Relations (ILR) program. In addition, data were gathered, as well, from a group of working part-time MBA students taking courses at night. The entire sample offered several advantages including cross-industry representation, access to lower, middle, and senior managers, and convenience. The directors of the two programs provided access to a mailing list of the graduates of the programs. Access to the night MBA students was gained via the permission of several faculty members who allocated class-time in order to distribute the research questionnaires.

Table 2

Rank of Participants
(n = 276)

Rank	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
1	8	3.1	3.1
2	21	8.3	11.4
3	26	10.2	21.7
4	25	9.8	31.5
5	16	6.3	37.8
6	25	9.8	47.6
7	37	14.6	62.2
8	47	18.5	80.7
9	23	9.1	89.9
10	26	10.2	100.0

The lowest rank is 1 and the highest rank is 10.
Mean = 6.14
Std. = 2.61

Table 3

Ages of Participants
(n = 260)

Age	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
22-29	57	21.9	21.9
30-39	93	35.8	57.7
40-49	83	31.9	89.6
50-59	23	8.9	98.5
60+	4	1.5	100.0

Mean = 38.02
Std. = 9.39

Table 4

Sex of Participants
(n = 270)

Sex	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Male	159	58.9	58.9
Female	111	41.1	100.0

Table 5

Tenure of Participants In Years (n = 270)

Tenure	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
<1	13	4.8	4.8
1	50	18.5	23.3
2-3	63	23.4	46.7
4-5	31	11.4	58.1
6-10	58	21.5	79.6
11-15	33	12.3	91.9
16+	22	8.1	100.0

Mean = 6.16
Std = 6.37

Table 6

Education of Participants
(n = 270)

Highest Degree	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
High School	0	0.0	0.0
Associates	0	0.0	0.0
Undergraduate	71	26.3	26.3
Masters Degree	180	66.7	93.0
Medical Degree	5	1.8	94.8
Professional	14	5.2	100.0

A number of statistical procedures were conducted to determine whether or not demographic differences among the 3 subsamples might unduly contribute to spurious results. A series of one-way analyses of variance (ANOVAs) were conducted to compare the group differences on age, rank, and tenure. Using the Scheffe test of significance at alpha .05 level, group differences were detected. Night MBA students were found to be significantly different from the EXMBAs and ILR graduates on three demographic characteristics: Age, rank, and tenure. Night MBAs were younger (mean = 29.42) compared to both Executive MBAs and ILR graduates (means = 41.27, 42.89 respectively). Night MBA students were also lower in rank (mean = 4.10) compared to both EXMBAs and ILR graduates (means = 6.61, 7.25 respectively). Night MBA students also had fewer years of tenure (mean = 2.60) compared to both EXMBAs and ILR graduates (means = 7.58, 8.28 respectively).

These initial analyses suggested that Night MBAs differed demographically from the Executive MBAs and ILR graduates. To determine the extent to which these differences might influence interpretation of the fully specified models that were planned for testing, a preliminary regression analysis was conducted for each of the complete models. As presented in the dependent variables section, the dependent variables for the fully specified models were: Job search behavior, organizational

commitment, and organizational trust. All of the direct effects terms in these models were included. In addition, an indicator variable was coded. Zero was selected to indicate the combined EXMBA and ILR group and one was selected to indicate the Night MBA students. Interaction terms of the indicator variable with the direct effects variables were then added to the three models for preliminary regression investigation. The procedure involved running a backward elimination strategy in which the interaction terms with the highest p values would be manually identified and removed one at a time from a series of regression analyses. In this manner, all of the interaction terms that were not found to be significant would eventually drop out. Significance was defined as p values of .10 or below. Only those that were found to be significant would be left in the final equation. The purpose of this procedure was to analyze the entire data set simultaneously and thereby determine whether or not the explained variability was subject to group effects. If significant interaction terms remained at the end of the backward elimination procedure, there would be sufficient statistical evidence to warrant separating the analyses by groups. On the other hand, if the interaction terms dropped out, then the groups could be safely combined as demographic differences in the subgroups would not be thought to unduly influence the explained variability of the regression

models. Appendix C highlights each of the backward elimination steps for three fully specified regression models which correspond to hypotheses 4-4B. Sufficient evidence was found to support grouping Night MBAs with EXMBAs and ILR graduates. Of the 23 interaction terms investigated for each of the three fully mediated models, nearly all of the interaction terms dropped out of the equations owing to their lack of significance at the p value of < .10. This indicated that group effects played only a relatively minor role in the regression models and thus the subgroups were combined.

Sample Size

The sample size was established in accordance with requirements suited to the use of multiple regression and correlation (MRC). One method of selecting a sufficient sample size calls for the collection of 6-10 subjects per independent variable (Neter, Wasserman, and Kutner, 1990). Since as many as 23 independent variables across as many as four sets may be entered into the full model regression analyses, roughly 138-230 subjects would be required on this basis. Power analysis was also conducted using software developed by Borenstein, Cohen, Rothstein, and Pollack (1992) and as illustrated by Cohen and Cohen (1983, Chapter 4). The principal question addressed was how large does the sample size need to be to detect both a significant R^2 and a

change in R^2 as sets of variables enter the regressions. The Borenstein et al. software revealed that a sample size of 130 yielded a power of .90 or above for the fully specified regression equations at alpha = .05.

Five hundred and three questionnaires were mailed to the homes of the participants. The final response rate was 37.5 percent which is within the range of response rates reported in Mitchell's (1985) review of correlational research published between 1979 and 1983 in the Journal of Applied Psychology (30-94%) and consistent with patterns of response rates described by Heberlein and Baumgartner (1978). The actual response rate reported was a function of the number of usable questionnaires returned divided by the number of questionnaires that were mailed or distributed less those which were unusable and returned by the post office as undeliverable.

The procedure for the mailing included enclosing a cover letter that explained the general nature of the research. The letter stated that this research is being conducted to learn more about the subject of job attitudes and would be analyzed statistically (Appendices A and B). The cover letter provided assurance of confidentiality. Included under the cover letter were the questionnaire and a postage-paid business reply envelope addressed to the office of the researcher. Table 7 reports the response rate for mailed surveys.

Table 7

Response Rate

Participants	Surveys Distributed[1]	Surveys Returned[2]	Response Rate (%)
Executive MBA Grads	278	120	43.2
Masters in Labor Relations	225	63	28.0
MBA students	220	88	40.0
Totals	723	271	37.5%

[1] Actual figure reported is the total figure mailed less the number of surveys returned by the U.S. Postal service due to bad address or expired forwarding address. In the case of participants currently enrolled in a night MBA program, the questionnaires were distributed during class time and returned within one day.

[2] Actual figure reported is the total figure returned less the number of surveys which were not usable due to skipped items or those answered by respondents who indicated they are retired. Among the Executive MBA respondents, 6 surveys were unusable. Among the Masters in Labor Relations respondents, 6 were also unusable. Among MBA students, 2 were unusable.

3.2 Instrumentation

The following section provides background on the instrumentation included in this research. The structure of this section focuses initially upon job insecurity and then continues with a discussion of the antecedents and consequences of job insecurity. The entire instrument is presented in Appendix D.

Job Insecurity

Numerous scales have been developed to measure job insecurity (Ashford, Lee and Bobko, 1989; Brockner et al., 1993; Caplan, Cobb, French, Harrison, and Pinneau, 1975; Cole, 1987; Hackman and Oldham, 1975; McCarthy, 1992).

Two scales were chosen here because they have both demonstrated reasonable construct validity in previous empirical tests: Ashford et al.'s (1989) JIS and Caplan et al.s' (1975) four item scale. The Ashford et al. scale is believed to be a more conceptually precise instrument than Caplan et al. because it is derived directly from Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt's (1984) theory. Initial empirical evidence has also lent some support to the psychometric properties of the JIS relative to the Caplan et al. (1975) scale (Ashford et. al, 1989, McCarthy, 1992). However, because the JIS has only seen a limited number of empirical tests, the employment of the Caplan et al. measure was deemed warranted. Single item tests such as Hackman and Oldham's

(1975) were also not utilized because they were believed to under-represent the content domain of job insecurity.

The JIS consists of a total of 57 items divided into five subscales. The first four subscales represent the overall severity of the threat and include: 1) importance of job features (17 items, Cronbach alpha coefficient = .93), 2) the likelihood of threat to job features (17 items, Cronbach alpha coefficient = .94), 3) the importance of the entire job (10 items, Cronbach alpha coefficient = .72), 4) likelihood of threat to the entire job (10 items, Cronbach alpha coefficient = .82). The fifth subscale is powerlessness to resist threats (3 items, Cronbach alpha coefficient = .84). This scale seeks respondent answers to statements such as the following: "I have enough power in this organization to control events that might affect my job". Response choices followed a 5 point Likert type format with 1 = Strongly agree and 5 = Strongly disagree as anchors.

The Caplan et al. scale was also utilized because it taps into general beliefs about job insecurity. A sample item is "My company offers opportunity for promotion and advancement?" A five point Likert type scale was provided with anchors of 1 = Strongly agree and 5 = Strongly disagree. This scale has demonstrated reasonable reliability in prior research. Both Ashford et al. (1989) and McCarthy (1992) reported a Cronbach alpha coefficient of

.73. The reliability coefficient in this research was .70. In this research, the JIS and the Caplan et al. measures were significantly correlated ($r = .18$, $p < .01$).

Antecedents of Job Insecurity

Prior Job Loss

This was measured by a single item: "Have you been laid off in the past three years". Respondents were asked to indicate 1 for "yes" or 2 for "no".

Environmental Conditions

The measurement of the environmental conditions of job insecurity followed from theoretical and conceptual rationales presented by Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt (1984). 10 items were drawn from a published public opinion survey (BusinessWeek, 1996) that were consistent, on face value, with theory. A 5 point Likert type response scale was selected. The items identify numerous aspects of the environmental conditions including mergers, acquisitions, and technological demands. The item instructions read: "Please indicate if you are concerned that these conditions now threaten your job security". The options were: Very concerned, concerned, neither concerned nor unconcerned, unconcerned, very unconcerned. Because no prior psychometric evidence of the validity of this measure was available, a pre-test of the scale was conducted using

undergraduate students from a business course at a major university. Reliability as measured by the Cronbach alpha coefficient was deemed suitable if the coefficient was .70 or higher (Nunnally, 1978). In the pretest, the Cronbach alpha coefficient was found to be .87. In this research, the Cronbach alpha coefficient was also found to be .87. The items were also subjected to factor analysis. Nine of ten items loaded on the a single factor (see Table 8) and the tenth item, "economic decline" also loaded on this factor, but somewhat less sufficiently.

Also, to assess the degree to which the environmental conditions scale tapped into its intended content domain, data were gathered using two items from Ashford et al.'s (1989) 'Anticipated Organizational Change' scale. This scale examines individual perceptions about the likelihood of organizational change, i.e. restructuring. Environmental conditions and Anticipated Organizational Change were found to be significantly correlated ($r = .41$, $p = .001$). At the same time, environmental conditions was not significantly related to constructs for which there is no theoretical basis to expect a relationship. For example, environmental conditions was not related to education, income, sex, or role ambiguity. Combined, these tests provided some preliminary basis for the reliability and construct validity of the environmental conditions construct and supported the decision to include this scale in the present research.

Table 8
Factor Analysis[1] of Environmental Conditions

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2
1	.509	.599
2	.616	.405
3	.635	.561
4	.661	.207
5	.682	.018
6	.674	-.023
7	.745	-.452
8	.705	-.521
9	.768	-.217
10	.707	-.245
Eigenvalue	4.54	1.47
Pct. of Var.	45.4%	14.7%

[1] Method Used: Principal Components Analysis.

Firm Level Antecedents

As in the case of the environmental conditions antecedent to job insecurity, the choice of firm level antecedents to job insecurity was guided by theoretical and conceptual considerations presented by Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt (1984). The following four firm level antecedents are included: Role ambiguity, supervisory support, work-group cohesion, and job alternatives.

Role Ambiguity

Rizzo, House and Lirtzman's (1970) scale of role ambiguity was utilized. An example of one item is "I have clear, planned goals and objectives for my job". The items followed a 5 point Likert type scale and were anchored with strongly agree and strongly disagree. This scale has been extensively tested in over 200 studies and is believed to possess adequate psychometric properties. Jackson and Schuler (1985) reported that at least 50 percent of the empirical studies in which role ambiguity was measured, reliability findings were reported. Among these reports, the lowest reliability coefficient for role ambiguity was .76. In this research, the Cronbach alpha coefficient was .86.

Supervisory Support

This scale was developed by Michaels and Spector (1982). It includes eight items that capture the human relations abilities of supervisors. A sample statement about a supervisor reads: "Lets me know where I stand". The items follow a 5 point Likert type scale with strongly agree and strongly disagree as anchors. Iverson and Roy (1994) found a Cronbach alpha coefficient of .82 in a recent report using the measure. In this research, the Cronbach alpha coefficient was .79.

Work Group Cohesion

A four item scale originally developed by Blau (1960) and recently employed by Iverson and Roy (1994), measured work-group cohesion. A sample item was: "The people in my immediate work group are friendly." Anchors were strongly agree and strongly disagree. Iverson and Roy (1994) found a reliability of .82 in a recent report using the measure. In this research, the Cronbach alpha coefficient was .89.

Job Alternatives

A four item scale developed by Bluedorn (1979) was included in the questionnaire. A sample item was "It would be easy for me to find a job with another employer." Anchors on a five point Likert type scale were strongly agree and strongly disagree. Iverson and Roy (1994)

reported an acceptable level Cronbach alpha coefficient of .84. In this research, the Cronbach alpha coefficient was .88.

Moderator Variables

Locus of Control

A five item scale modified by Ashford et al. (1989) was included in the questionnaire. A sample item was "When I make work plans, I am certain to make them work". Anchors on a five point Likert type scale were strongly agree and strongly disagree. Ashford et al. reported a Cronbach alpha coefficient of .70. In this research, the Cronbach alpha coefficient was .78.

Intolerance of Ambiguity

Three items from Norton's (1975) scale were used to capture intolerance of ambiguity. McCarthy (1992) used this scale and reported a Cronbach coefficient alpha of .76. A sample item is "If I am very uncertain about the responsibility of a job, I get very anxious". Anchors on a five point Likert type scale are strongly agree and strongly disagree. In this research, the Cronbach alpha coefficient was .61.

Dependent Variable Measures

Job Search Behavior

The job search behavior index (JSBI) was developed by Kopelman et al. (1992). This instrument is an inventory of behavioral items believed to be precursors of voluntary turnover. The JSBI items inquire if the subjects have, for example, "Read a book about getting a new job?" or "Sent copies of your resume to a prospective employer?". The JSBI is comprised of 10 items with forced choice format: "Yes" or "no". Kopelman et al. (1992) reported a reliability of .85 for the JSBI and demonstrated superior psychometric properties over several other attitudinal scales of intention to quit. In this research, the Cronbach alpha coefficient was .86.

Organizational Commitment

The nine item version of the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) was utilized (Mowday, Steers, and Porter, 1979). This is a shortened version of the 15 item scale and includes only positively worded items. A sample item is: "I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this organization be successful." A five point Likert type scale was used with anchors ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. This instrument has been widely tested and possesses acceptable psychometric properties. The

average reliability reported in a review of the 9 studies using the 9 item version of the OCQ was .86 (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990). In this research, the Cronbach alpha coefficient was .90.

Organizational Trust

Four items were used to identify employee levels of trust in their organization. Two of the items were previously used by Roskies and Louis-Guerin (1990) and dealt with the degree to which the employee believes they are treated fairly by the organization and would benefit from being with the organization. A sample item was "I am treated fairly by my company." Anchors were 5 point Likert type with response choices ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. Two additional items were selected from Ashford et al. (1989) which dealt with the degree to which the organization could be trusted to look out for the respondent's best interests and the degree of belief in top management. Ashford et al. reported a Cronbach alpha coefficient of .78 for these items. In this research, the Cronbach alpha coefficient for the four item scale was .87.

Control Variables

Four control variables were selected: Age, sex, education, and tenure. Age and sex were measured as discrete variables. Subjects were asked to record their age

and sex. Education was measured by instructing subjects to state their highest degree obtained. A list of possible degree types was presented and the subjects were instructed to circle their highest degree earned. Tenure was measured by instructing the subjects to record the number of years that they have worked for their present employer.

3.3 Procedure and Analysis

Procedure

The research employed a cross-sectional design with data being collected via mail survey of masters' level graduates and direct solicitation of active night MBA students. Participants' responses to the questionnaire (see Appendix D) were entered into a spreadsheet data file as the questionnaires were returned. The entire instrument was pre-tested. Pre-testing was conducted on two undergraduate classes of a major northeastern university. Students were rewarded with extra-credit by the instructor for their participation. A total of 70 students participated. Statistical analyses were conducted on each of the research variables to assess Cronbach alpha coefficient of reliability, and factor structure. Statistical analysis in both pre-testing and full testing of the hypotheses was conducted using SPSS for windows, Version 6.1 (Norusis, 1995). During the pretesting phase, the subjects assisted in refining the questionnaire by pointing out several

typographical errors and ambiguously worded items. These refinements were introduced into the final version of the questionnaire and were believed to have improved its readability.

Analysis

The research data were collected and entered into a personal computer spreadsheet file to prepare a readable format for data processing and importation into SPSS for Windows. Having the data in spreadsheet format offered the added benefit of allowing the researcher to conduct a number of manual procedures, including regression analysis, that was part of the final model validation analyses.

Descriptive statistics were computed for all demographic and main variables of the research (mean and standard deviation). Frequency analyses were conducted for dichotomous and forced choice variables such as sex, education, and rank.

To insure that the three groups in the sample under investigation were similar enough to be analyzed together, a number of procedures were conducted. These procedures, recounted earlier, provided confidence that demographic differences among the three subgroups did not unduly influence the variability explained by the models.

Reliability analyses were performed using Cronbach alpha coefficient for all measures except dichotomous

variables or single item measures.

Pearson product moment correlation analyses were performed to determine bi-variate inter-correlations for all main effects variables in the model.

Factor analyses were performed to confirm a priori expectations about known factor structures of the variables in the model. For the scale that was pre-tested (environmental conditions), item loadings were assessed to determine the degree to which the 10 items of the construct loaded together.

Hierarchical regression analysis was used to test for direct relationships between antecedents of job insecurity and job insecurity (Hypotheses 1, 1A, 1B, 1C, 1D, 1E) as prescribed by Cohen and Cohen (1983).

To test for the effects of moderator variables (locus of control and intolerance of ambiguity), moderated regression analysis was conducted (Hypotheses 2A, 2B). Moderated regression analysis isolates the main effects of antecedents upon job insecurity and independently assesses how locus of control and intolerance of ambiguity moderate these relationships. To analyze this, moderated regression analysis follows a series of steps in which variables are entered as sets. Here, significant R^2 or change in R^2 indicates the importance of the item or the set. On the first step, the control variables are entered as a set (age, sex, education, and tenure). The control variables identify

any effects that might be attributable to demographic factors. On the second step, the independent variables are entered as a set (prior job loss, environmental conditions, role ambiguity, supervisory support, work group cohesion, perceived job alternatives). On the third step, the moderators are entered. The moderators are the interactions of the moderator variable and the independent variables. Six interaction terms are entered at this step. Separate regressions were conducted for each of the two moderators. For locus of control, the moderator terms were: Prior job loss X locus of control, environmental conditions X locus of control, role ambiguity X locus of control, supervisory support X locus of control, work group cohesion X locus of control, and job alternatives X locus of control. An identical procedure was conducted for the moderator intolerance of ambiguity.

A moderator effect is found when the interaction term in the third step is significant or the overall change in R^2 is significant for the set of moderators (Baron and Kenny, 1986; Cohen and Cohen, 1983).

In keeping with Evans (1991) it should be noted that hierarchical regression is the most appropriate method for testing interactions and for analyses that use composite variables. This is because it is not subject to scaling related measurement problems. The Ashford et al. (1989) Job Insecurity Index (JSI) is a composite of two dimensions,

threat to the job and threat to job features which are then weighted by the individual's power to resist these threats.

A further set of hierarchical regression analyses were performed to test direct relationships between job insecurity and coping consequences (job search behavior, organizational commitment, and organizational trust, Hypotheses 3, 3A, and 3B).

To test for the mediating effect of job insecurity specified in the research model, hierarchical regression was performed (Hypotheses 4, 4A, and 4B). In these analyses, four steps were followed: In the first step the control variables were entered, in the second step job insecurity was entered, in the third step the independent variables were entered, and in the final step the moderator interaction terms were entered. Three separate regression analyses were conducted, one for each of the dependent variables: Job search behavior, organizational commitment, and organizational trust.

Evidence to support a mediating role of job insecurity is found when the addition of independent variables into the regression equation does not contribute to a significant increase in the explained variability. Three characteristics of evidence support this. First, variations in the independent variables account for variations in the mediator variable. Second, variations in the mediator variable account for variations in the dependent variable.

Third, when the first two characteristics are controlled, then any prior relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variable becomes insignificant, or, in the case of social psychological research, the direct effects of the independent variables on the dependent variable is reduced (Baron and Kenny, 1986).

All of the above hierarchical regression models for each of the stated hypotheses were then reduced through a strategy of backward elimination. In this procedure, each of the main effects and interaction terms with the highest p values were manually identified and dropped from the model. This procedure was repeated until only significant main effects or interaction terms remained in the models. In this manner, the resultant models were believed to be more parsimonious and, hence, more precise than the original, unreduced models.

Tests of multicollinearity were also conducted to determine whether or not variation in the regression coefficients was a function of high inter-correlations of the independent variables. Multicollinearity results when two or more predictor variables are correlated at more than .70 (Weisberg, Krosnick, and Bowen, 1989). In such cases, the regression coefficient of each predictor becomes unstable and separate effects cannot be determined among the inter-correlated predictor variables. This is because the underlying commonalities of the predictor variables render

them interchangeable as influences upon the dependent variable. To test for multicollinearity, analysis of pairwise coefficients of simple correlation were utilized (Neter et al., 1990).

Model validation was conducted as a final procedure in the analyses. The data were randomly divided into two groups of 138 each. This was done through a data handling procedure of SPSS Windows. In model validation, the first group of data was designated a model building set and the second set of data became the model validation set. The coefficients of regression analyses conducted on the model building set were used to analyze the model validation set of data. If the resultant R^2s were similar, then the coefficients were thought to have some increased degree of stability and, therefore, improved interpretability. Model validations included only those terms which remained after the backward elimination procedures described above. Job insecurity, being the focal term, was preserved in the equations throughout the stages of elimination.

CHAPTER 4. RESULTS

To test for specific hypotheses related to identifying the antecedents (H1-H1E) and the consequences (H3-H3B) of Job insecurity, preliminary analysis was conducted using Pearson product moment correlation analysis (Table 9). Supporting analyses involved follow-up hierarchical regression analyses (Table 10).

Table 9

Correlation Coefficients
All Participants
(n = 260-274)

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1 57 Item JIS										
2 4 Item Caplan JIS	.18[b]									
3 Prior Job Loss	.17[b]	.06								
4 Environment	.38[c]	.22[c]	.03							
5 Role Ambiguity	.26[c]	.28[c]	.04	.06						
6 Supervisory Support	-.26[c]	-.39[c]	.09	-.17[b]	-.36[b]					
7 Group Cohesion	-.21[c]	-.30[c]	.05	-.15[a]	-.23[c]	.38[c]				
8 Job Alternatives	-.17[b]	-.01	.02	-.01	.01	-.05	.03			
9 Job Search Behavior	.33[c]	.25[c]	.14[a]	.22[c]	.14[b]	-.28[c]	-.30	.16[b]		
10 Org. Commitment	-.33[c]	-.52[c]	.03	-.07	-.40[c]	.39[c]	.42[c]	-.11	-.37[c]	
11 Org. Trust	-.26[c]	-.55[c]	.02	-.12[a]	-.28[c]	.36[c]	.44[c]	-.04	-.38[c]	.70[c]

a= $p < .05$
b= $p < .01$
c= $p < .001$

Antecedents of Job Insecurity

H1: Prior job loss is positively related to job insecurity.

Pearson correlation analysis revealed that prior job loss is positively related to job insecurity ($r = .17$, $p < .01$), supporting H1. Further support for H1 was revealed in hierarchical regression analysis (Table 10). Table 10 reports hierarchical regression findings using the Ashford et al. (1989) 57 item job insecurity scale (JIS). Prior job loss was found to significantly contribute to job insecurity (Beta = .13, $p < .05$, significant).

Table 10

Determinants of Job Insecurity
(n = 238)

Variable	Steps 1	2	Reduced Model
Control Variables			
Age	-.09	-.07	
Sex	.12	.18[b]	
Tenure	-.19[a]	-.13	-.15[b]
Education	-.03	.04	
Independent Variables			
Prior Job Loss		.13[a]	
Environment		.32[c]	.32[c]
Role Ambiguity		.22[c]	.22[c]
Supervisor Support		-.09	
Work Group Cohesion		-.01	
Job Alternatives		-.07	
ΔR^2 =		.21	.19
R2 =	.08	.29	.22
ΔF =		11.19[c]	30.81[c]
F =	5.29[c]	9.28[c]	23.35[c]

==========

* = $p < .10$
a = $p < .05$
b = $p < .01$
c = $p < .001$

Standardized Regression coefficients are reported.
Test of Hypotheses 1, 1A, 1B, 1C, 1D, 1E

H1A: Environmental conditions are positively related to job insecurity.

Pearson correlation analysis revealed that environmental conditions are positively related to job insecurity ($r = .38$, $p < .001$). Further support for H1A was revealed in hierarchical regression analysis (Beta = .32, $p < .001$, significant). See Table 10.

H1B: Role ambiguity is positively related to job insecurity.

Pearson correlation analysis revealed that role ambiguity is positively related to job insecurity ($r = .26$, $p < .001$). Further support for H1B was revealed in hierarchical regression analysis (Beta = .22, $p < .001$, significant). See Table 10.

H1C: Supervisory support is negatively related to job insecurity.

Pearson correlation analysis revealed that supervisory support is negatively related to job insecurity ($r = -.26$, $p < .001$). However, further support for H1C was not confirmed in hierarchical regression analysis (Table 10). Supervisory support (Beta = -.09, non-significant) did not contribute significantly to job insecurity.

H1D: Work group cohesion is negatively related to job insecurity.

Pearson correlation analysis revealed that work group cohesion is negatively related to job insecurity ($r = -.21$,

$p < .001$). However, further support for H1D was not confirmed in hierarchical regression analysis (Table 10). Work group cohesion (Beta = -.01, non-significant) did not contribute significantly to job insecurity.

H1E: The perceived availability of job alternatives is negatively related to job insecurity.

Pearson correlation analysis revealed that perceived job alternatives is negatively related to job insecurity ($r = -.17$, $p < .01$). However, further support for H1E was not found in hierarchical regression analysis (Table 10). Perceived job alternatives did not contribute significantly to job insecurity (Beta = -.07, non-significant).

A follow-up hierarchical regression procedure was then conducted in which non-significant terms were manually identified and removed, one at a time, from a series of regressions. The results are reported under the Reduced Model Heading in Table 10. The backward elimination procedure resulted in the dropping of all but two of the antecedents of job insecurity: Environmental conditions (Beta = .32, $p < .001$, significant) and role ambiguity (Beta = .22, $p < .001$, significant). The change in R^2 from the inclusion of these two variables was .19 ($F_{2,255} < .001$, significant).

Summary of Results: Hypotheses 1-1E

Evidence from the combined correlation and regression analyses tended to offer support for hypotheses 1A and 1B. Environmental conditions and role ambiguity contributed to significant explanations of job insecurity. Only partial support was found for hypothesis 1 as prior job loss dropped out of the regression model during the backward elimination procedure. No support was found for antecedent hypotheses 1C, 1D, and 1E (supervisory support, work group cohesion, and perceived job alternatives were not significantly related to job insecurity).

Moderator Variables

H2: Locus of control moderates the antecedents--job insecurity relationship.

Partial support for H2 was confirmed in hierarchical regression analysis (Table 11). Two antecedent terms interacted significantly with locus of control (supervisory support (Beta = .93, $p < .05$) and work group cohesion (Beta = -1.31, $p < .01$).

Table 11

Moderators of Job Insecurity
Locus of Control
(n = 238)

Variable	Steps 1	2	3	Reduced Model
Control Variables				
Age	-.09	-.08	-.06	
Sex	.12	.18[b]	.15[a]	
Tenure	-.19[b]	-.13	-.13	-.16[b]
Education	-.03	.04	.04	
Independent Variables				
Prior Job Loss		.13[a]	.31	.12[a]
Environment		.32[c]	.92[b]	.35
Role Ambiguity		.22[c]	-.16	
Supervisor Support		-.09	-.78[a]	-.73[a]
Group Cohesion		-.01	1.00[b]	.96[b]
Job Alternatives		-.07	-.05	
Moderator Variables				
Prior Job Loss X LC			.29	
Environment X LC			-.63	
Role Ambiguity X LC			.31	
Suprv. Support X LC			.93[a]	.85[a]
Group Cohesion X LC			-1.31[b]	-1.29[b]
Job Alternatives X LC			-.10	
ΔR^2 =		.21	.05	.05
R^2 =	.08	.29	.34	.28
ΔF =		11.19[c]	2.87[b]	8.37[c]
F =	5.29[c]	9.28[c]	7.20[c]	13.76[c]

==========

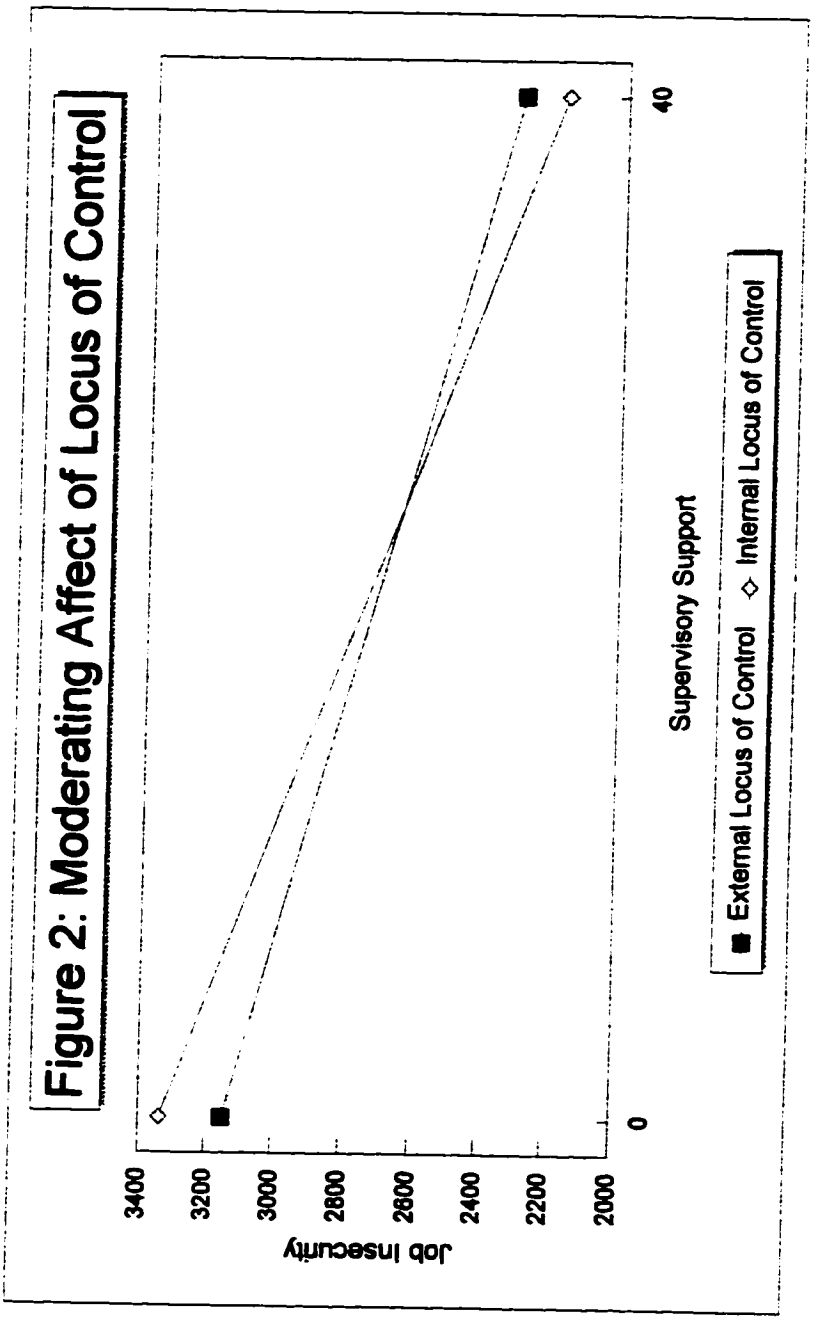
* = $p < .10$
a = $p < .05$
b = $p < .01$
c = $p < .001$
Standardized Regression coefficients are reported.
Test of Hypothesis 2.

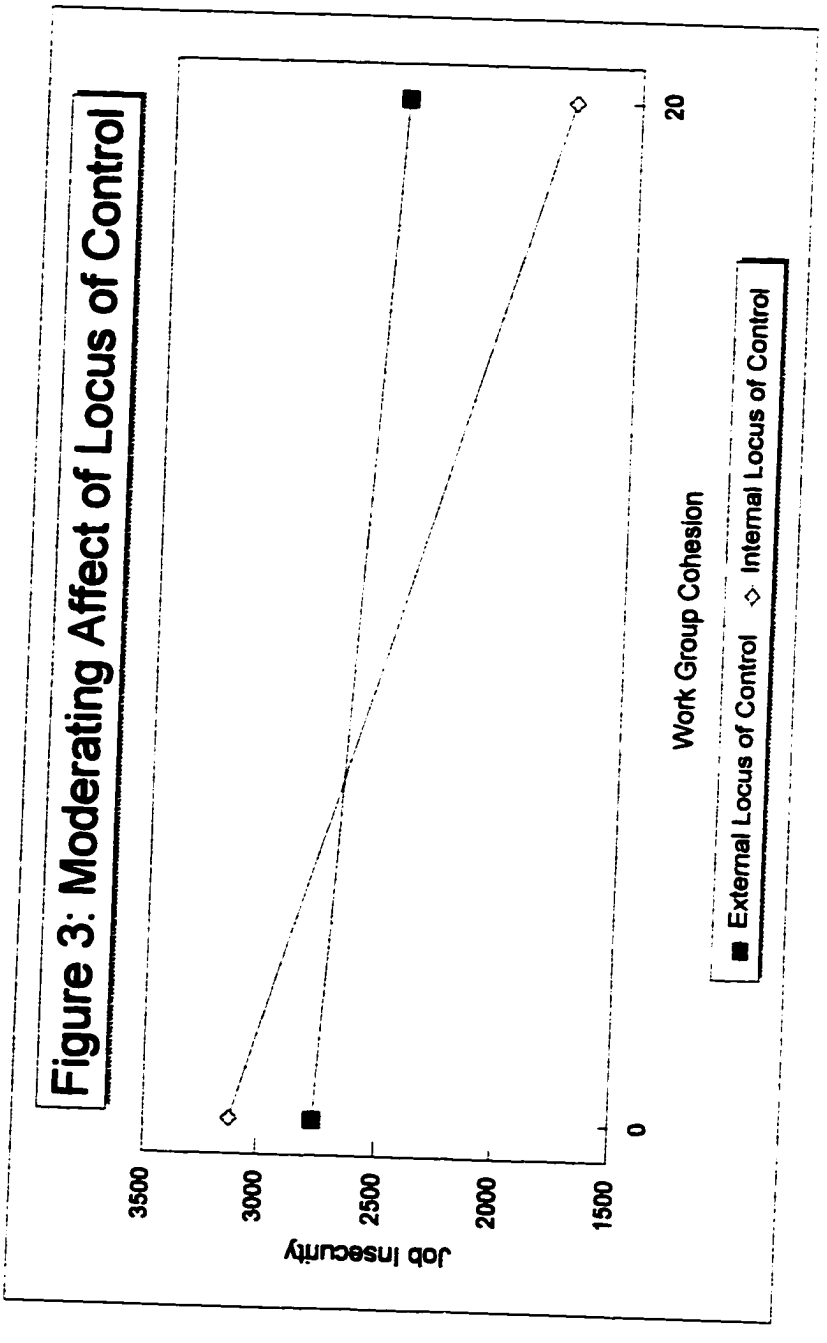
As in the cases of hypotheses 1-1E, a follow-up hierarchical regression procedure was then performed in which non-significant terms were manually identified and removed, one at a time, from a series of regressions. The results are reported under the Reduced Model heading in Table 11. The backward elimination procedure confirmed the results of the earlier full regression (Table 11). Locus of control again significantly interacted with supervisory support (Beta = .85, $p < .05$) and work group cohesion (Beta = -1.29, $p < .01$). Both interactions terms contributed significantly to the change in R^2. The change in R^2 from the inclusion of these two variables was .05 ($F_{2,252} < .001$, significant).

Figure 2 depicts this interaction for locus of control and supervisory support. Job insecurity was regressed on supervisory support for internal locus of control and external locus of control subsamples. The figure shows how increases in supervisory support tend to reduce job insecurity somewhat more for the internal locus of control subsample, than for the external locus of control subsample.

Figure 3 depicts this interaction for locus of control and work group cohesion. Job insecurity was regressed on work group cohesion for internal locus of control and external locus of control subsamples. The figure shows how increases in work group cohesion tend to reduce job insecurity somewhat more for the internal locus of control

subsample, than for the external locus of control subsample.





H2A: Intolerance of ambiguity moderates the antecedents--job insecurity relationship.

No support for H2A was found after performing hierarchical regression analysis (Table 12). All six terms interaction terms made non-significant contributions to the antecedents-job insecurity relationship

Table 12

Moderators of Job Insecurity Intolerance of Ambiguity (n = 237)

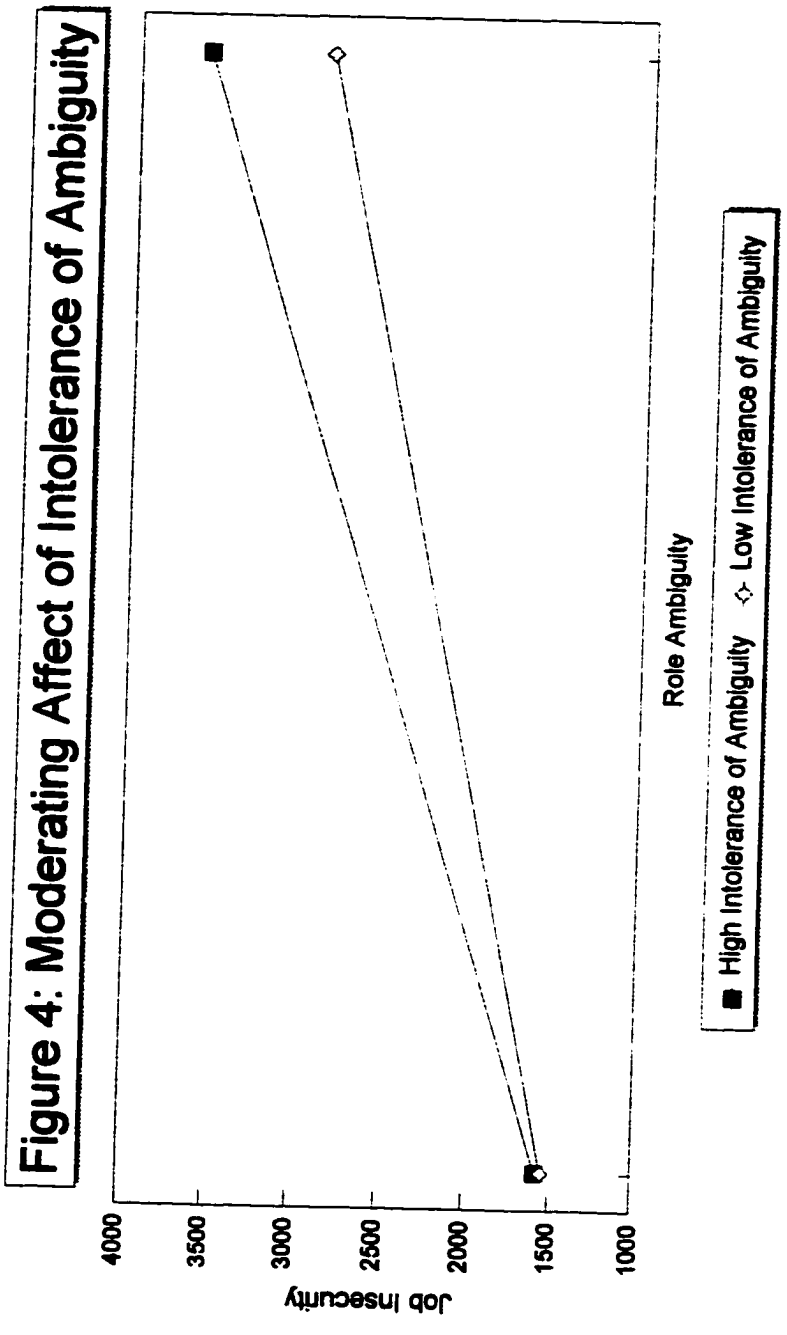
Variable	Steps 1	2	3	Reduced Model
Control Variables				
Age	-.09	-.08	-.07	
Sex	.11	.17[b]	.17[b]	
Tenure	-.19[b]	-.13	-.13	-.16[b]
Education	-.03	.03	.04	
Independent Variables				
Prior Job Loss		.13[a]	.20	.12[a]
Environment		.31[c]	.29	.32[c]
Role Ambiguity		.22[c]	.01	
Supervisor Support		-.09	.10	
Group Cohesion		-.01	-.05	
Job Alternatives		-.07	-.02	
Moderator Variables				
Prior Job Loss X IA			.11	
Environment X IA			.03	
Role Ambiguity X IA			.26	.25[c]
Suprv. Support X IA			-.24	
Group Cohesion X IA			.04	
Job Alternatives X IA			-.06	
ΔR^2 =		.20	.00	.05
R^2 =	.09	.29	.29	.27
ΔF =		10.61[c]	.00	17.05[c]
F =	5.42[c]	9.11[c]	5.73[c]	23.50[c]

==========

* = p < .10
a = p < .05
b = p < .01
c = p < .001
Standardized Regression coefficients are reported.
Test of Hypothesis 2A.

After performing the model reducing backward elimination procedure, role ambiguity was found to significantly interact with intolerance of ambiguity (Beta = .25, $p < .001$). These results can be interpreted as offering limited support for hypothesis 2A. The change in R^2 from the inclusion of this term was .05 ($F_{2,250} < .001$, significant).

Figure 4 depicts this interaction for intolerance of ambiguity and role ambiguity. Job insecurity was regressed on role ambiguity for high intolerance of ambiguity and low intolerance of ambiguity subsamples. The figure shows how increases in role ambiguity tend to increase job insecurity more decidedly for those who are highly intolerant of ambiguity than for those who are lower on intolerance for ambiguity.



Summary of Results: Hypotheses 2-2A

Evidence from the regression analyses tended to offer support for hypotheses 2 and 2A, however, the support for hypothesis 2A must be interpreted as rather limited. In the case of hypothesis 2, two antecedent variables interacted significantly with locus of control. This was in evidence in both the full regression analysis and in the subsequent model reducing analysis (Table 11).

The evidence from the joint regression analyses suggested that intolerance of ambiguity interacts significantly with role ambiguity only after the performance of model reducing procedures (Table 12). Because this term was non-significant in the full regression analysis, hypothesis 2A finds only limited support.

Consequences of Job Insecurity

H3: Job insecurity is positively related to job search behavior.

Pearson correlation analysis revealed that perceived job insecurity is positively related to job search behavior ($r = .33$, $p < .001$). Further support for H3 was revealed in hierarchical regression analysis (Table 13). Job insecurity was found to significantly contribute to the variability explained in job search behavior. The change in R^2 from the inclusion of job insecurity in the reduced model was .10 ($F_{1,239} < .001$, significant).

Table 13

Determinants of Job Search Behavior
(n = 245)

Variable	Steps		
	1	2	Reduced Model
Control Variables			
Age	-.15	-.11	
Sex	-.08	-.12[a]	-.11[a]
Tenure	-.19[b]	-.14[a]	-.19[c]
Education	.09	.09	
Independent Variables			
Job Insecurity		.32[c]	.30[c]
ΔR^2 =		.10	.09
R^2 =	.09	.19	.16
ΔF =		29.50[c]	26.46[c]
F =	5.97[c]	11.04[c]	15.27[c]

* = p < .10
a = p < .05
b = p < .01
c = p < .001
Standardized Regression coefficients are reported.
Test of Hypothesis 3.

A follow-up hierarchical regression procedure was then conducted in which non-significant control variables were identified and manually removed, one at a time, from a series of regressions. The results are reported under the Reduced Model heading in Table 13. The backward elimination procedure resulted in the dropping of age and education which was consistent with non-significant findings for control variables in the full regression (Table 13). The change in R^2 from the inclusion of job insecurity in the reduced model was .10 ($F_{1,246}$, $p < .001$, significant).

H3A: Job insecurity is negatively related to organizational commitment.

Pearson correlation analysis revealed that job insecurity is negatively related to organizational commitment ($r = -.33$, $p < .001$). Further support for H1E was revealed in hierarchical regression analysis (Table 14). Job insecurity explained 8 percent of the variability in organizational commitment ($F_{1,247}$, $p < .001$, significant).

Table 14

Determinants of Organizational Commitment
(n = 247)

Variable	Steps 1	Steps 2	Reduced Model
Control Variables			
Age	.07	.04	
Sex	.03	.06	
Tenure	.06	.01	
Education	.15[a]	.09[a]	.16[b]
Independent Variables			
Job Insecurity		-.28[c]	-.26[c]
ΔR^2 =		.08	.07
R^2 =	.04	.12	.10
ΔF =		21.91[c]	19.67[c]
F =	2.83[a]	6.51[c]	13.62[c]

* = $p < .10$
a = $p < .05$
b = $p < .01$
c = $p < .001$
Standardized Regression coefficients are reported.
Test of Hypothesis 3A.

A follow-up hierarchical regression procedure was then conducted in which non-significant control variables were identified and manually removed, one at a time, from a series of regressions. The results are reported under the Reduced Model heading in Table 14. The backward elimination procedure resulted in the dropping of age, sex and tenure. Only education remained as a significant control variable (Beta = .16, $p < .01$). This was consistent with non-significant findings for control variables in the full regression (Table 14). The ΔR^2 from the inclusion of job insecurity in the reduced model was .07 ($F_{1,254}$, $p < .001$, significant).

H3B: Job insecurity is negatively related to organizational trust.

Pearson correlation analysis revealed that job insecurity is negatively related to organizational trust ($r = -.26$, $p < .001$). Further support for H1E was revealed in hierarchical regression analysis (Table 15). Job insecurity was found to significantly contribute to the variability explained in organizational trust ($F_{1,240}$, $p < .001$, significant).

Table 15

Determinants of Organizational Trust
(n = 246)

Variable	Steps 1	Steps 2	Reduced Model
Control Variables			
Age	-.01	-.05	
Sex	.01	.05	
Tenure	.01	-.06	
Education	.09	.08	
Independent Variables			
Job Insecurity		-.34[c]	-.31[c]
ΔR^2 =		.10	
R^2 =	.01	.11	.10
ΔF =		26.97[c]	
F =	.43	6.17[c]	27.31[c]

* = p < .10
a = p < .05
b = p < .01
c = p < .001
Standardized Regression coefficients are reported.
Test of Hypothesis 3B.

Results from the follow-up hierarchical regression procedure are reported under the Reduced Model heading in Table 15. The backward elimination procedure resulted in the dropping of all of the control variables: Age, sex, tenure, and education. This was consistent with non-significant findings for the control variables in the full regression. The overall R^2 of .10 was fully explained by job insecurity in the reduced model ($F_{1,244}$, $p < .001$, significant).

Summary of Results: Hypotheses 3-3B

Evidence from the combined correlation and regression analyses that were performed offered consistent support for hypotheses 3, 3A, and 3B. Job insecurity was found to significantly contribute to explained variability in all three outcome variables: Job search behavior, organizational commitment, and organizational trust.

Mediated Models

Three fully specified models were tested to investigate the degree to which job insecurity acts as a mediator of the relationship between its antecedents and its consequences. Dependent variables for the three models were: Job search behavior, organizational commitment, and organizational trust.

H4: Job insecurity mediates the relationship between antecedents of job insecurity and job search behavior. Hierarchical regression analysis presented in Table 16 provided support for hypothesis 4. After controlling for age, sex, tenure, and education, job insecurity explained 10 percent of the variability of job search behavior (ΔR^2 = .10, $F_{1,227}$, $p < .001$, significant). Some evidence of partial mediation was found for the antecedent variables. Although only one antecedent variable made a statistically significant contribution to explained variability (work group cohesion, Beta = .36, $p < .05$), the entire set of antecedents contributed 10 percent of the explained variability (ΔR^2 = .10, $F_{1,225}$, $p < .01$, significant).

Table 16

Determinants of Job Search Behavior
Mediated Model
(n= 233)

Variable	Steps 1	2	3	4
Control Variables				
Age	-.14	-.11	-.06	-.06
Sex	-.09	-.12[a]	-.09	-.09
Tenure	-.18[b]	-.12	-.12	-.14
Education	.06	.07	.08	.08
Mediator				
Job Insecurity		.33[c]	.25[c]	.22[b]
Independent Variables				
Prior Job Loss			-.06	-.13
Environment			.10	.57
Role Ambiguity			-.08	-.54
Supervisor Support			-.17[a]	-.40
Group Cohesion			-.21[c]	.36[a]
Job Alternatives			.11	-.06
Moderator Variables				
Prior Job Loss X LC				.35
Environment X LC				-.07
Role Ambiguity X LC				.40
Suprv. Support X LC				.50
Group Cohesion X LC				-.34
Job Alternatives X LC				-.19
Prior Job Loss X IA				.49
Environment X IA				.50
Role Ambiguity X IA				-.02
Suprv. Support X IA				-.20
Group Cohesion X IA				-.40
Job Alternatives X IA				.41
ΔR^2 =		.10	.10	.05
R^2 =	.08	.18	.28	.33
ΔF =		27.68[c]	5.20[b]	1.33
F =	4.87[c]	9.77[c]	8.01[c]	4.40[c]

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* = p < .10
a = p < .05
b = p < .01
c = p < .001
Standardized Regression coefficients are reported.
Test of Hypothesis 4.

Results from the follow-up hierarchical regression procedure are reported in Table 16A. The backward elimination procedure resulted in the dropping of all of the control variables except tenure (Beta = -.13, $p < .01$, significant) and all of the antecedent variables. Job insecurity continued to explain a significant amount of variability in the model ($\Delta R^2 = .08$, $F_{1,249}$, $p < .001$, significant). In addition, locus of control interacted significantly with work group cohesion (Beta = -.29, $p < .001$, significant) and job alternatives (Beta = .21, $p < .001$, significant). This indicated that these interaction terms directly explained 8 percent of the overall variability ($F_{1,248}$, $p < .001$). The reduced model explained 22 percent of the variability for job search behavior compared to 33 percent explained by the full model (see Table 16).

Table 16A

Determinants of Job Search Behavior
Reduced Mediated Model
(n= 252)

Variable	Steps 1	2	3
Control Variables			
Tenure	-.25[c]	-.18[b]	-.13[a]
Mediator			
Job Insecurity		.29[c]	.25[c]
Independent Variables			
None entered			
Moderator Variables			
Group Cohesion X LC			-.29[c]
Job Alternatives X LC			.21[c]
ΔR^2 =		.08	.08
R^2 =	.06	.14	.22
ΔF =		23.16[c]	25.43[c]
F =	16.39[c]	20.84[c]	17.76[c]

==========

* = p < .10
a = p < .05
b = p < .01
c = p < .001
Standardized Regression coefficients are reported.
Test of Hypothesis 4.

H4A: Job insecurity mediates the relationship between antecedents of job insecurity and organizational commitment.

Hierarchical regression analysis presented in Table 17 provides some initial but limited support for hypothesis 4A. After controlling for age, sex, tenure, and education, job insecurity explained 7 percent of the variability in organizational commitment (ΔR^2 = .07, $F_{1,229}$, p < .001, significant). Clear evidence of partial mediation was found for the antecedent variables. Although only work group cohesion (Beta = .84, p < .05) was significantly and directly related to organizational commitment, the antecedent variables when taken as a set, contributed substantially to the overall R^2 explained by the model (ΔR^2 = .25, $F_{6,227}$, p < .001, significant). Additional direct effects were also found for locus of control which interacted with three antecedent variables: Environmental conditions (Beta = .89, p < .05, significant), work group cohesion (Beta = -1.16, p < .05, significant), and perceived job alternatives (Beta = -.74, p < .05, significant). The combined effect of the interaction terms when taken as a set was to explain 8 percent of the overall R^2 ($F_{12,216}$, p < .01, significant). Overall, the model explained 44 percent of the variability in organizational commitment ($F_{23,211}$, p < .001).

Table 17

Determinants of Organizational Commitment
Mediated Model
(n = 235)

Variable	Steps 1	2	3	4
Control Variables				
Age	.04	.02	-.08	-.09
Sex	.04	.07	-.02	-8.16E-04
Tenure	.06	.01	.02	.02
Education	.17[a]	.17[a]	.13[a]	.13[a]
Mediator				
Job Insecurity		-.27[c]	-.15[a]	-.13[a]
Independent Variables				
Prior Job Loss			-.02	-.25
Environment			.04	-.79
Role Ambiguity			-.22[c]	.59
Supervisor Support			.21[b]	-.37
Group Cohesion			.27[c]	.84[a]
Job Alternatives			-.08	.33
Moderator Variables				
Prior Job Loss				-.74
Environment X LC				.89[a]
Role Ambiguity X LC				-.32
Suprv. Support X LC				.46
Group Cohesion X LC				-1.16[a]
Job Alternatives X LC				-.74[a]
Prior Job Loss X IA				-.45
Environment X IA				.02
Role Ambiguity X IA				-.47
Suprv. Support X IA				.36
Group Cohesion X IA				.35
Job Alternatives X IA				.16
ΔR^2 =		.07	.25	.08
R^2 =	.04	.11	.36	.44
ΔF =		18.01[c]	14.78[c]	2.57[b]
F =	2.96[a]	5.89[c]	11.62[c]	7.15[c]

==========

* = p < .10
a = p < .05
b = p < .01
c = p < .001

Standardized Regression coefficients are reported.
Test of Hypothesis 4A.

Results from the follow-up hierarchical regression procedure are reported in Table 17A. The backward elimination procedure resulted in the dropping of all of the control variables except education (Beta = .10, $p < .10$, significant) and all of the antecedent variables. Job insecurity explained a significant amount of the variability when it entered the model ($\Delta R^2 = .06$, $F_{1,242}$, $p < .001$, significant). However, after the inclusion of the antecedent variables and the interaction terms in the model, job insecurity failed to contribute significantly to the variability explained in organizational commitment. By contrast, the antecedent variables explained 12 percent of the variability and the interaction terms explained 18 percent of the variability. Overall, the reduced model explained 39 percent of the variability in organizational commitment ($F_{11,233}$, $p < .001$).

Table 17A

Determinants of Organizational Commitment
Reduced Mediated Model
(n = 245)

Variable	Steps 1	2	3	4
Control Variables				
Education	.18[b]	.16[b]	.11[a]	.10[*]
Mediator				
Job Insecurity		-.24[c]	-.15[a]	-.08
Independent Variables				
Environment			.01	-.66[b]
Role Ambiguity			-.35[c]	.18
Job Alternatives			-.09[*]	.63[a]
Moderator Variables				
Environment X LC				.75[b]
Group Cohesion X LC				.27[b]
Job Alternatives X LC				-.95[b]
Role Ambiguity X IA				-.42[b]
Suprv. Support X IA				.34[c]
ΔR^2 =		.06	.12	.18
R^2 =	.03	.09	.21	.39
ΔF =		15.96[c]	36.46[c]	16.80[c]
F =	8.62[b]	11.90[c]	12.93[c]	14.79[c]

==========

* = $p < .10$
a = $p < .05$
b = $p < .01$
c = $p < .001$

Standardized Regression coefficients are reported.
Test of Hypothesis 4A.

H4B: Job insecurity mediates the relationship between antecedents of job insecurity and organizational trust. Hierarchical regression analysis presented in Table 18 provides support for hypothesis 4B. After controlling for age, sex, tenure, and education, job insecurity explained 10 percent of the variability in organizational trust (ΔR^2 = .10, $F_{1,231}$, $p < .001$, significant). As in the case of organizational commitment, evidence of partial mediation was found. The antecedent variables as a set explained 21 percent of the variability in organizational trust ($F_{6,229}$, $p < .001$, significant). Locus of control interacted significantly with work group cohesion (Beta = -1.02, $p < .05$, significant) but the interaction terms taken as a set did not explain a significant amount of the variability in organizational trust. Overall, the model explained 38 percent of the variability in organizational trust ($F_{23,213}$, $p < .001$).

Table 18

Determinants of Organizational Trust
Mediated Model
(n = 237)

Variable	Steps 1	2	3	4
Control Variables				
Age	-.04	-.07	-.14	-.13
Sex	.01	.05	-.02	-.03
Tenure	.01	-.05	-.05	-.04
Education	.09	.08	.04	.05
Mediator				
Job Insecurity		-.33[c]	-.22[c]	-.22[c]
Independent Variables				
Prior Job Loss			-.03	-.22
Environment			-.12	-.66
Role Ambiguity			.21[a]	.59
Supervisor Support			.21[b]	-.21
Group Cohesion			.30[c]	.72
Job Alternatives			-.07	.16
Moderator Variables				
Prior Job Loss X LC				-.49
Environment X LC				.29
Role Ambiguity X LC				-.04
Suprv. Support X LC				.51
Group Cohesion X LC				-1.02[a]
Job Alternatives X LC				-.24
Prior Job Loss X IA				-.14
Environment X IA				.56
Role Ambiguity X IA				-.71
Suprv. Support X IA				.09
Group Cohesion X IA				.43
Job Alternatives X IA				-.09
ΔR^2 =		.10	.21	.06
R^2 =	.01	.11	.32	.38
ΔF =		25.96[c]	11.79[c]	1.76
F =	.44	5.74[c]	9.70[c]	5.82[c]

==========

* = p < .10
a = p < .05
b = p < .01
c = p < .001
Standardized Regression coefficients are reported.
Test of Hypothesis 4B.

Results from the follow-up hierarchical regression procedure are reported in Table 18A. The backward elimination procedure resulted in the dropping of all of the control variables except age (Beta = -.14, $p < .05$, significant) and all of the antecedent variables except role ambiguity ($p < .05$). Job insecurity explained a significant amount of variability ($\Delta R^2 = .10$, $F_{1,231}$, $p < .001$, significant). The largest contribution to explained variability came from the interaction terms. Locus of control interacted significantly with supervisory support (Beta = .27, $p < .001$, significant) and perceived job alternatives (Beta = -.13, $p < .05$, significant). Intolerance of ambiguity interacted significantly with role ambiguity (Beta = -.40, $p < .01$, significant) and work group cohesion ($p < .001$). As a set, these four interaction terms contributed 19 percent of the explained variability in organizational trust ($F_{4,234}$, $p < .001$). Overall, the reduced model explained 35 percent of the variability in organizational trust ($F_{7,232}$, $p < .001$).

Table 18A

Determinants of Organizational Trust
Reduced Mediated Model
(n = 240)

Variable	Steps 1	2	3	4
Control Variables				
Age	.01	-.06	-.10	-.14[a]
Mediator				
Job Insecurity		-.33[c]	-.27[c]	-.22[c]
Independent Variables				
Role Ambiguity			-.25[a]	.25[a]
Moderator Variables				
Suprv. Support X LC				.27[c]
Job Alternatives X LC				-.13[a]
Role Ambiguity X IA				-.40[a]
Group Cohesion X IA				.42[c]
ΔR^2 =		.10	.06	.19
R^2 =	.00	.10	.16	.35
ΔF =		26.33[c]	16.92[c]	68.40[c]
F =	.02	13.71[c]	15.04[c]	17.79[c]

==========

* = $p < .10$
a = $p < .05$
b = $p < .01$
c = $p < .001$
Standardized Regression coefficients are reported.
Test of Hypothesis 4B.

Summary of Results: Hypotheses 4-4B

Evidence from the regression analyses and reduced models tended to offer partial support for hypotheses 4 and 4B but did not support hypothesis 4A (see Figures 5, 6, 7)

Tests of the full models and reduced models indicated that job insecurity partially mediates the relationship between its antecedents and both job search behavior and organizational trust whereas it was not found to act as a mediator of the antecedents/organizational commitment relationship. In all models, substantial direct relationships were found between either antecedents of job insecurity and consequences of job insecurity or between interaction terms and consequences of job insecurity.

FIGURE 5: FINAL MODEL OF JOB SEARCH BEHAVIOR

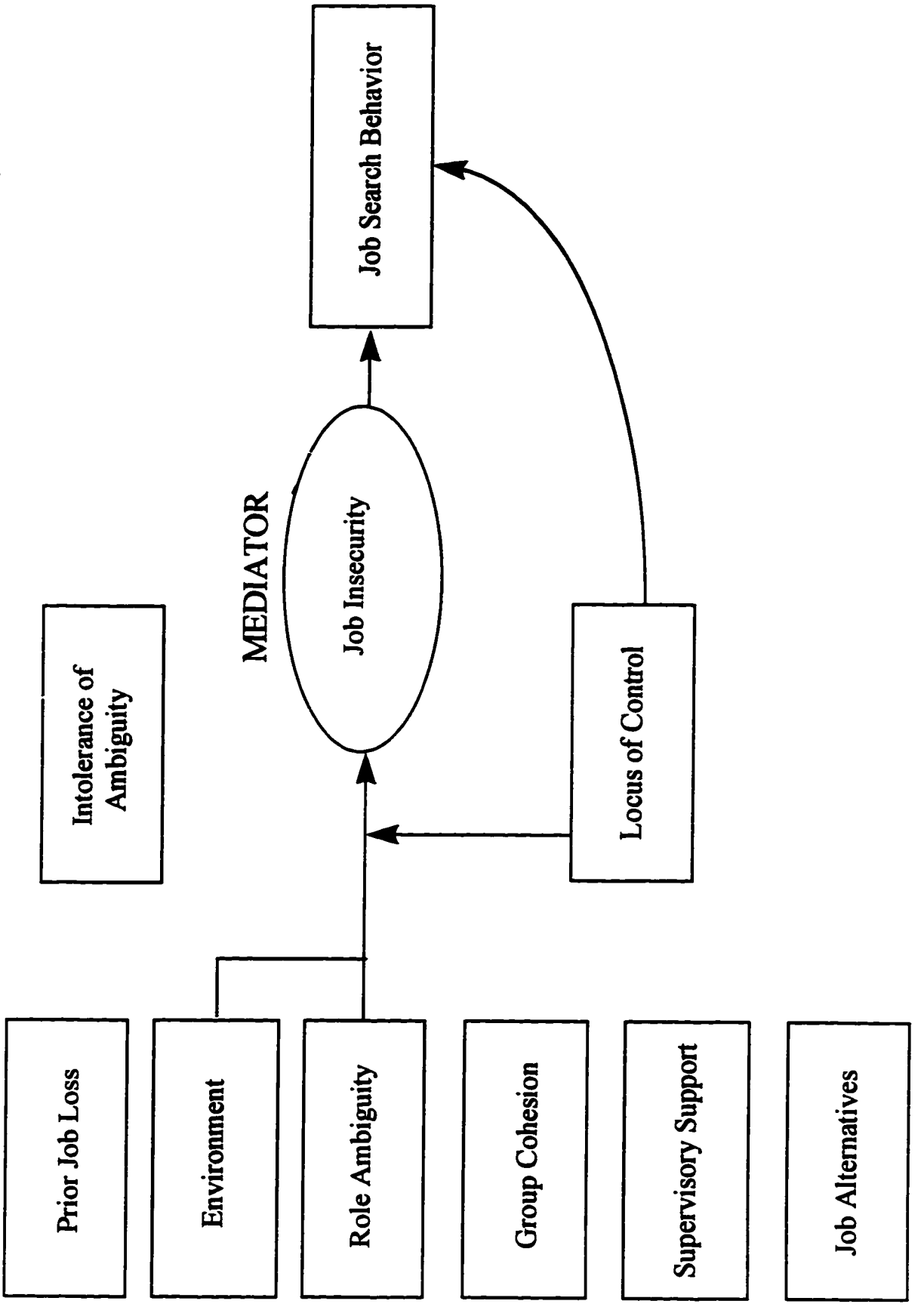


FIGURE 6: FINAL MODEL OF ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

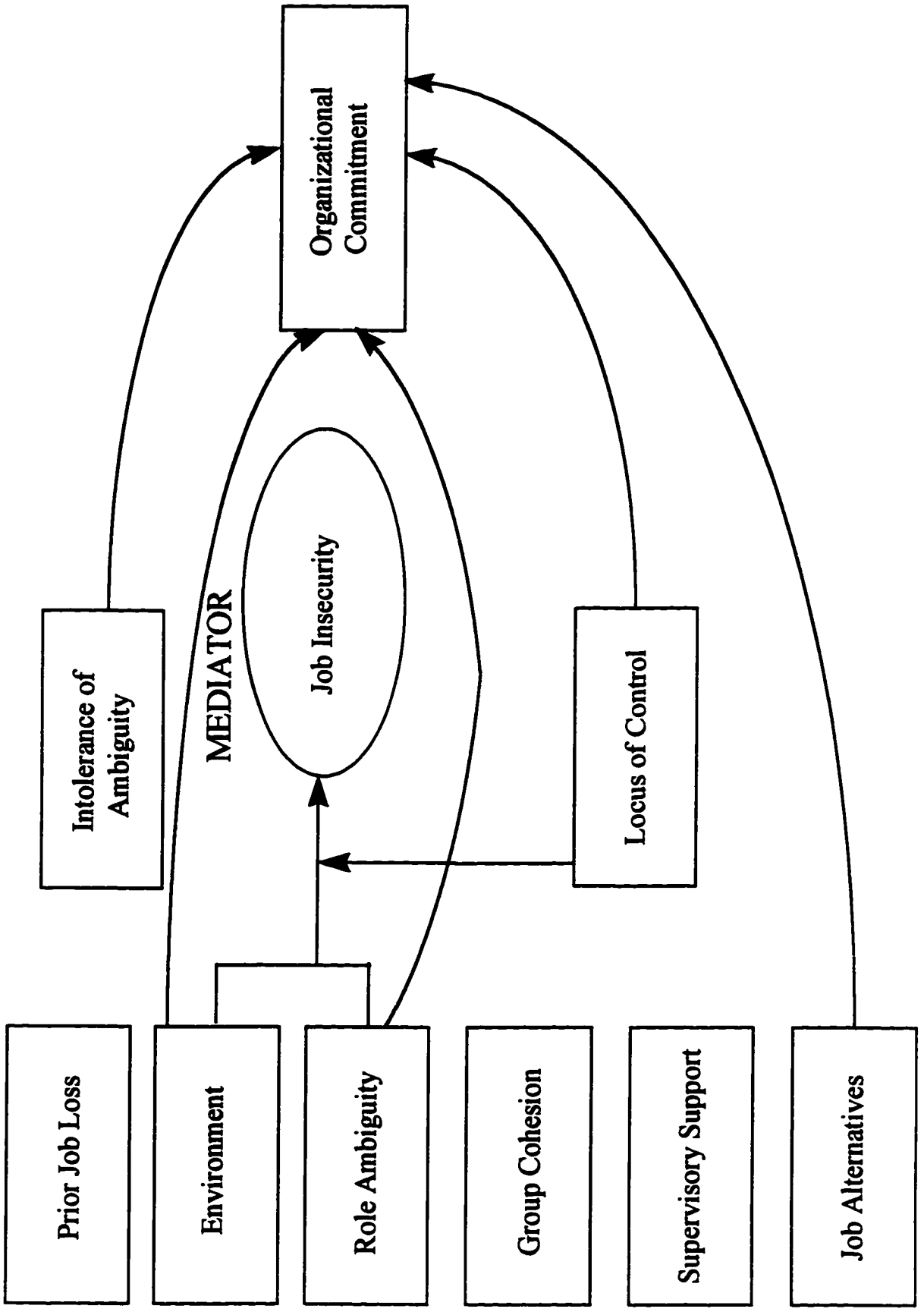
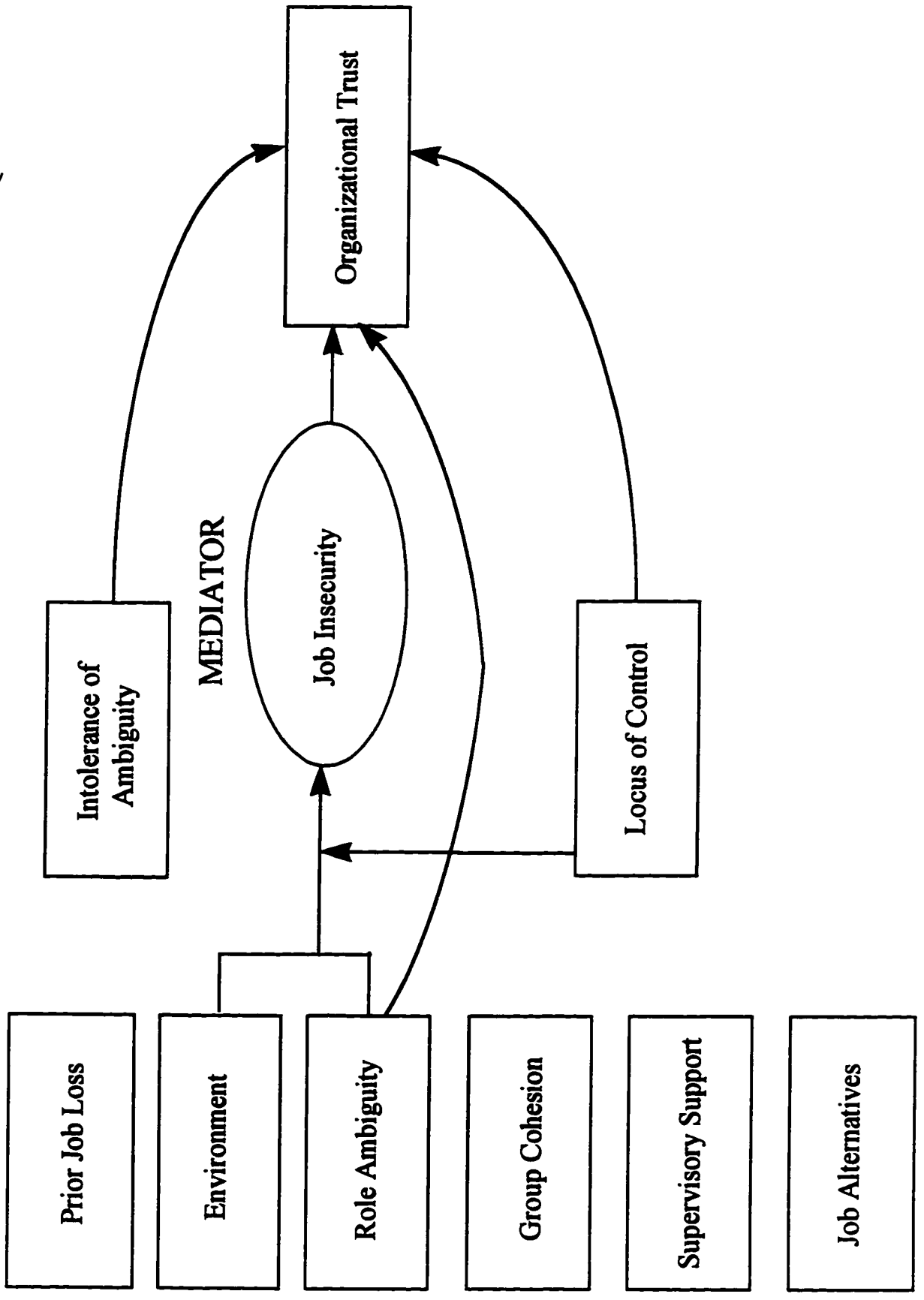


FIGURE 7: FINAL MODEL OF ORGANIZATIONAL TRUST



Model Validation

Model validation procedures were conducted as a last step in the research analyses. The purpose of model validation was to statistically assess the degree to which the regression coefficients derived in one sample are stable in other samples. Of interest is the extent to which the variability explained is stable across samples. If the variability was found to be dissimilar, little confidence could be placed in the predictive value of such a model.

To perform these analyses, the full sample of 276 was randomly divided into two subsamples of 138 each. The first subsample was designated the model building set. The second set was designated the model validation set. Three hierarchical regression analyses were performed on the model building set using the identical regression equations yielded in the reduced model analyses (see Tables 16A, 17A, and 18A). The regression coefficients yielded from each of these analyses were then manually regressed using the data from the model validation set. Again, three manual regressions were performed, one for each of the three mediated models: The relationship between the antecedents and consequences of 1) job search behavior, 2) organizational commitment, and 3) organizational trust. Table 19 reports results for the model validation procedure. R^2s are presented for the full sample, model building subsample, and the model validation subsample.

Table 19

Model Validation
Mediated Models

Dependent Variable	Models		
	All Subjects (n=276)	Model Building (n=138)	Validation Sample (n=138)
	R^2		
Job Search Behavior	.22	.23	.21
Organizational Commitment	.39	.48	.32
Organizational Trust	.35	.41	.36

R^2 reported is for fully specified models after backward elimination of nonsignificant terms. Reduced model coefficients were used in computing the R^2s in the model building phase. The validation procedure was then conducted. This entailed the retention of unstandardized regression coefficients from the Model Building sample which were then used for computing the R^2 of the validation sample.

Summary of Model Validation Procedure

The results of the model validation procedure indicated a reasonable degree of stability for two models: Job search behavior and organizational trust. The R^2s were quite similar in the model building and validation sets. The R^2 in the job search behavior model building set was .23 and it was .21 in the model validation set. The R^2 in the organizational trust model building set was .41 and it was .36 in the model validation set.

The results for the organizational commitment model were somewhat less consistent. The R^2 in the model building set was .48 versus .32 in the model validation set.

CHAPTER 5. DISCUSSION

Summary

The purpose of this research was to empirically identify the antecedents and consequences of job insecurity in which job insecurity is the perception that one's job incumbency is at risk. In addition, this research sought to determine if job insecurity acts as a mediator of the relationship between its antecedents and consequences. Because middle managers have felt a good deal of the brunt of job losses in the United States recently, they were the targeted population of interest. Data from this research provided support for eight of fourteen hypotheses. The following discussion examines the rationale and findings of the research, the theoretical and practical implications, limitations of the research, future areas of research, and conclusions are drawn.

Rationale and Findings

Noticeable attention has been given by the U.S. media to the individual experience of job insecurity (BusinessWeek, 1996; Fortune, 1996; New York Times, 1996). In a survey of large corporations, 46 percent of workers reported experiencing concerns about being laid off (BusinessWeek, 1996a). Even with this media attention, relatively few scholarly investigations have emerged. As a result, theoretic formulations have yet to receive

substantive empirical support. This research sought to add to the base of empirical evidence that has investigated the principal theory of job insecurity which was outlined by Leonard Greenhalgh and Zehava Rosenblatt in 1984.

The specific focus of this research was to test a model of job insecurity based on the theoretical work of Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt (1984) and to address four principal questions:

1. What are the antecedents of job insecurity?
2. What is the influence of moderator variables upon the antecedents--job insecurity relationship?
3. How is job insecurity related to consequences?
4. Does job insecurity mediate between antecedents and consequences of job insecurity?

Findings

Hypotheses 1-1E examined six antecedents to job insecurity. These hypotheses addressed three potential sources of job insecurity: 1) individual level, 2) macro level, and 3) firm level. Two hypotheses were supported: 1A and 1B.

Hypothesis 1

At the individual level, hypothesis 1 examined the relationship of the experience of prior job loss with job insecurity, namely whether or not the individual had experienced a layoff within the previous three years.

Anecdotal evidence (New York Times, 1996) and theoretical rationale (Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt, 1984) suggested that prior job loss leaves a lasting impression. Further, individuals often suffer periods of depression following a layoff (Jick, 1985). Three sets of analyses were conducted to test hypothesis 1. In the first analysis, prior job loss (layoff) was found to be significantly correlated with job insecurity. Further support for hypothesis 1 came after hierarchical regression revealed that prior job loss was significantly related to job insecurity. Yet, while these first two analyses supported hypothesis 1, it was not supported in the final analysis. Prior job loss did not remain in the final equation after the model was subjected to backward elimination. Because this procedure is designed to reduce a model to its most essential elements, only significant variables remain after it is performed. Prior job loss did not explain a sufficient amount of variability in job insecurity to warrant continued inclusion in the model. The evidence in this research indicates that prior job loss may only be viewed as contributing to job insecurity on a limited and non-significant basis.

The reason for this is still not clear. It is possible that individuals are more accepting of job loss given the huge numbers of individuals who have faced downsizing in recent years. It is also possible that the world of work, as Hall and Mirvis (1996) suggest, is changing. Managers

incorporate into their career plans the scenario of experiencing a layoff. The effects of job loss may be brief and thus less likely to be associated with job insecurity at the next job. It is also possible that individuals may deny or refuse to examine the experience of prior job loss and see themselves as unlikely to be affected by future job loss.

Hypothesis 1A

At the macro level, hypothesis 1A examined the degree to which environmental conditions inside and outside the firm may contribute to a sense of increased job insecurity. Numerous theorists and empirical evidence provided support for this contention (Brockner et al., 1993; Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt, 1984; Schweiger and Ivancevich, 1985).

To test this, it was necessary to develop and validate an environmental conditions scale. Pilot testing, convergent evidence, factor structure, and internal consistency evidence suggested that the environmental conditions scale possessed reasonable construct validity.

Three sets of analyses were conducted to test hypothesis 1A. All analyses supported this hypothesis. In the first analysis, environmental conditions were found to be significantly correlated with job insecurity. Further support for hypothesis 1A came after hierarchical regression revealed that environmental conditions were significantly

related to job insecurity. In the final analysis, environmental conditions remained in the equation after all non-significant variables dropped out. This evidence is highly supportive of hypothesis 1A.

This evidence also suggests that individuals are concerned that forces outside of themselves or their immediate work area play a significant role in influencing their sense of job insecurity. Merger activity, for example, has broken records in each successive year from 1994-1996. Individuals are well aware that mergers are frequently followed by organizational downsizing. Often this occurs with little warning. As a result, individuals know that there are broad forces at work over which they have limited control and further, these forces represent the difference between having and not having a job. The evidence in this research revealed that individual perceptions of environmental conditions were positively related to job insecurity.

Hypothesis 1B

At the firm level, hypothesis 1B examined the relationship between role ambiguity and job insecurity. Role ambiguity occurs when there is a perceived shortfall between information available to do one's job and information needed to do one's job (Kahn, et al., 1981; Rizzo, et al., 1970).

Three sets of analyses were conducted to test hypothesis 1B. All analyses supported this hypothesis. In the first analysis, role ambiguity was found to be significantly correlated with job insecurity. Further support for hypothesis 1B came after hierarchical regression analysis revealed that role ambiguity was significantly related to job insecurity. In the final analysis, role ambiguity remained in the equation after all non-significant variables dropped out. This evidence is highly supportive of hypothesis 1B and consistent with findings from Ashford et al., (1989).

Role ambiguity is a particularly important firm level variable because it interrupts the means-ends continuum which is an assumed part of working for a living. Role ambiguity means that you simply lack the information that is needed to do your job. As a result, performance goals may become more difficult to obtain. This may, in turn, lead to the feeling that one is not able to do one's job properly and thus, the experience of higher job insecurity.

Hypothesis 1C

At the firm level, hypothesis 1C examined the relationship between supervisory support and job insecurity. It was reasoned that having a supportive supervisor should be negatively related to job insecurity.

Three sets of analyses were conducted to test hypothesis 1C. Only Pearson correlation analysis supported this hypothesis. Support for hypothesis 1C was neither found in hierarchical regression analysis nor in the reduced model. This research suggests that supervisory support is not an antecedent of job insecurity. The reason for this is still unclear. It may be that individuals do not see their supervisor as the principal buffer between them and loss of their job or loss of job features. Thus, job insecurity may be perceived as more of a function of how one does one's job rather than whether or not their supervisor supports them. Further, supervisors may not be viewed as instrumental in protecting individuals from external influences upon job security.

Hypothesis 1D

At the firm level, hypothesis 1D focused on the relationship between experiencing work group cohesion and job insecurity.

Three sets of analyses were conducted to test hypothesis 1D. Only Pearson correlation analysis supported this hypothesis. Support for hypothesis 1D was neither found in hierarchical analysis nor in the reduced model. This research suggests that work group cohesion is not an antecedent of job insecurity. Again, as in the case of supervisory support, being a part of a closely knit group

may be desirable to an individual but need not be related to reduced job insecurity. Thus individuals do not see work group cohesion as a way of reducing job insecurity.

Hypothesis 1E

Also at the firm level, hypothesis 1E looked at the relationship between perceived job alternatives and job insecurity.

Again, three sets of analyses were conducted to test hypothesis 1E. As in the cases of hypotheses 1C and 1D, only Pearson correlation analysis supported this hypothesis. Support for hypothesis 1E was neither found in hierarchical regression analysis nor in the reduced model. This research suggests that perceived job alternatives is not an antecedent of job insecurity. It is possible that perceived job alternatives may be desirable to an individual but need not be related to reduced job insecurity.

Hypotheses 2 and 2A

Hypothesis 2 and 2A examined the potential moderating influence of locus of control and intolerance of ambiguity on the relationship between the antecedents of job insecurity and job insecurity. These hypotheses were formulated to assess whether or not individual differences play a role in the experience of job insecurity. Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt (1984) suggested it would be important to

determine if different types of people are more likely to experience job insecurity given a set of antecedent conditions. For example, does the perception of role ambiguity differentially influence perceived job insecurity for individuals who vary on the tolerance for ambiguity?

To test hypotheses 2 and 2A, two sets of analyses were performed for each hypothesis. First, hierarchical regression was performed (Tables 12 and 13) and second, a hierarchical regression procedure was performed in which non-significant terms were manually identified and eliminated from the regression equation one at a time (Tables 12A and 13A).

For hypothesis 2, both hierarchical procedures revealed that locus of control interacts significantly with supervisory support and group cohesion. Further, these terms explain a significant amount of the variability in job insecurity. Locus of control appears to be an important individual difference that moderates the antecedents--job insecurity relationship.

Interestingly, locus of control interacts significantly with the two antecedent variables that measure interpersonal dimensions of the work environment: Supervisory support and work group cohesion. Placing a precise interpretation on the meaning of these terms, however, was rendered difficult owing to the evidence of unacceptably high levels of multicollinearity. Until further research is conducted, the

stability of the coefficients from these terms is still unknown. What is known is that locus of control does demonstrate an interaction affect.

For hypothesis 2A, intolerance of ambiguity did not interact with any antecedent variables until the regression model had been reduced (Table 13A). It then interacted significantly with role ambiguity. This is consistent with theoretical formulations in that individuals who are intolerant of ambiguity are likely to find ambiguous work conditions threatening, thereby increasing job insecurity.

Hypothesis 3

Hypothesis 3 examined the relationship between job insecurity and job search behavior. Three sets of analyses were conducted to assess the significance of this relationship: Pearson correlation analysis, hierarchical regression and hierarchical regression using backward elimination. All three analyses were supportive of hypothesis 3.

The rationale for hypothesis 3 is that individuals who feel threatened in their jobs are likely to take proactive steps to begin searching for a new job. This may range from picking up the help wanted section of a newspaper to calling a placement professional. This finding is consistent with Ashford et al.'s (1989) finding that links job insecurity to intentions to quit. It also strengthens this earlier

finding because the job search behavior index used in this research possesses rather objective properties in that it focuses only on behavioral indicators rather than attitudes (Kopelman, et al., 1992). The overall importance of this finding is that individuals who experience job insecurity can be expected to take active steps to change their employer.

Hypothesis 3A

Hypothesis 3A examined the relationship between job insecurity and organizational commitment. Again, three sets of analyses were conducted to assess the significance of this relationship: Pearson correlation analysis, hierarchical regression and hierarchical regression using backward elimination. Again, all three analyses were supportive of hypothesis 3A.

The evidence from this research is quite clear that job insecurity has a pronounced negative relationship with organizational commitment. There is an intuitive logic to this finding. Individuals who are insecure in their jobs should find it difficult to continue heightened levels of identification and loyalty to a firm which offers them no job security. These results support the results of earlier research by Ashford et al.'s (1989).

Hypothesis 3B

Hypothesis 3B examined the relationship between job insecurity and organizational trust. As in the prior two hypotheses, three sets of analyses were conducted to assess the significance of this relationship: Pearson correlation analysis, hierarchical regression, and hierarchical regression using backward elimination. All three analyses were supportive of hypothesis 3B.

Once again, the evidence from this research reveals that job insecurity has a negative influence upon pro-organizational attitudes. In these analyses, job insecurity was shown to be negatively related to organizational trust. Individuals who experience job insecurity seem to also perceive that their employer is not looking out for the individual's best interests. It appears that job insecurity undermines some of the fundamental attitudinal attachments of individuals to their employers.

Hypothesis 4

Hypothesis 4 describes a test of the full model and focuses on job insecurity as a mediator of the antecedents--job search behavior relationship. This is the first empirical research to look at job insecurity as a mediator variable. To test hypothesis 4, three sets of analyses were conducted: Hierarchical regression, hierarchical regression with backward elimination, and a model validation procedure.

All three analyses supported hypothesis 4. The evidence suggests that job insecurity mediates the antecedents--job search behavior relationship.

It should be noted that some of the effects of the antecedents upon job search behavior were direct rather than indirect. This was apparent prior to model reduction when the antecedents explained 10 percent of the variability of job search behavior. However, after the model reduction procedure, all of the antecedents dropped out of the equation. Interestingly, though, locus of control interacted significantly with work group cohesion and perceived job alternatives. Thus, two moderators actually had direct effects upon job search behavior.

In the final procedure, model validation was conducted for the job search behavior model by splitting the sample of 276 into randomly assigned equal subgroups and assessing the degree to which the overall model exhibited stability. The evidence suggested that the model was stable in that both subsamples predicted roughly the same variability in job search behavior. Taken in full, the evidence from this research suggests that job insecurity partially mediates the relationship between its antecedents and job search behavior.

Hypothesis 4A

Hypothesis 4A examined the mediating role of job insecurity for the antecedents-organizational commitment relationship. To test hypothesis 4A, the same three sets of analyses performed for hypothesis 4 were repeated. The results, however, were not supportive of hypothesis 4A. In particular, model reduction procedures revealed that job insecurity did not contribute significantly to the overall variability explained. Further, model validation procedures revealed that the reduced model did not demonstrate stable properties. The variability explained by the model building set was a good deal higher than that of the model validation set. This may have been a function of sampling error but is more likely to have reflected a lack of robustness of the model. These findings suggest that organizational commitment is a function of numerous antecedents, among which, job insecurity is but one. While job insecurity was shown to influence organizational commitment directly given the evidence supporting hypothesis 3A, when hierarchical modeling includes numerous other organizational variables, it becomes less important. Due to the instability of the model validation analysis, further research may still be warranted to look at this question.

Hypothesis 4B

Hypothesis 4B examined the mediating role of job insecurity for the antecedents-organizational trust relationship. Once again, the identical three sets of analyses were conducted: Hierarchical regression, hierarchical regression with backward elimination, and a model validation procedure. As in the case of hypothesis 4, all three analyses supported hypothesis 4B. Therefore the initial evidence suggests that job insecurity mediates the antecedents--organizational trust relationship.

Again, however, this finding requires a qualified interpretation. The mediating effect of job insecurity is not complete. Only one third of the variability explained by the mediated model can be directly attributable to the effects of job insecurity. In fact, even after model reduction procedures, a majority of the explained variability was a result of the combined direct effects of role ambiguity and interaction terms which remained in the model. The stability of this model was supported in the model validation procedure. In summary, the evidence here suggests that job insecurity clearly demonstrates mediating properties, yet it can not be considered a complete mediator as it shares with other variables a large portion of the overall explained variability.

Implications for Theory

This research followed the theoretical map originally produced by Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt (1984). In their work, Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt argued that job insecurity is a complex multi-dimensional construct which is not measurable by a single-item instrument or by a few homogeneous items. The authors theorized that job insecurity was a multiplicative function of perceived threat to the job and the ability of an individual to ward off that threat. High job insecurity occurs, they said, when threat is high and the ability to resist that threat is low. Thus, the authors were the first to envision a richer content domain for job insecurity than prior treatments such as Caplan et al. (1975).

The empirical research that was spawned by Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt's theory of job insecurity accomplished two things: 1) a reliable measure of job insecurity was developed and 2) the nomological network described by Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt received partial support. A large share of the credit for these empirical advances is owed to Ashford et al.'s (1989) development of a 57-item multiplicative job insecurity scale (JIS) and their initial tests of some of the antecedents and consequences of job insecurity. Still unclear, however, were the answers to a number of questions related to the overall nomological network of job insecurity. The literature suggested that a

number of plausible gaps remained open for investigation. This research, in effect, attempted to martial evidence to address these areas. Four areas, in particular, were identified. A model was designed that examined these four areas.

The first area examined the antecedents of job insecurity. This research distinguished between three types of antecedents: Individual level, macro level, and firm level. The rationale for this distinction was to determine if specific types of antecedents were more likely to cause job insecurity. This distinction was made with practical considerations in mind. If, on the one hand, the evidence revealed that firm level or departmental arrangements were the largest source of job insecurity, then management might institute programs, should it desire, to deal directly with those antecedents of job insecurity. If, on the other hand, however, the largest source of job insecurity was found to be macro types of variables such as the economy or the U.S. trend toward mergers, then organizations would have less flexibility in responding at the organizational level with programs which might deal with the effects of these macro forces. No research had previously investigated these distinctions.

The second area looked at the role of individual differences as they moderate the antecedents--job insecurity relationship. Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt had addressed this

issue in their theory, but substantive empirical tests of this formulation were lacking.

The third area looked at the consequences of job insecurity. This research examined organizationally relevant outcomes guided by Latack's (1986) stress and coping framework. In particular this research focused on identifying how individual's cope both behaviorally and attitudinally with the experience of job insecurity.

The final goal of this research was to test the entire theoretical model. In this model, job insecurity presided as the central variable both conceptually and structurally. The major proposition of this research was that job insecurity is an important mediator of the relationship between its antecedents and its consequences. Importantly, this functional relationship was theorized by Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt (1984) but it had yet to have been empirically tested. This research, therefore, is the first empirical investigation that tests this element of Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt's theory.

Again, considering the original research questions posed in this investigation, the major contributions to theory are as follows:

The antecedents of job insecurity were determined to have multi-level properties. Both firm level and macro level variables were identified as antecedents to job insecurity. At the firm level, role ambiguity emerged as an

antecedent to job insecurity. At the macro level, environmental conditions also contributed to the explanation for job insecurity. The role ambiguity findings confirmed earlier findings by Ashford et al. (1989) but the environmental conditions finding was somewhat more novel given that this research tested and validated a 10 item measure of environmental conditions for this research. This finding shows that individuals are very concerned about larger forces in and around the organization and perceptions of these forces contribute directly to job insecurity.

The second contribution of this research was its investigation of locus of control and intolerance of ambiguity as moderators of the antecedents--job insecurity relationship. Locus of control was found to moderate these relationships. This is important, not only because it was part of the original theory, but also because these results can now be interpreted somewhat less ambiguously. The relationships are clearly influenced by individual differences.

The third contribution of this research is largely confirmatory in that job insecurity was found to be directly related to three consequences: Job search behavior, organizational commitment, and organizational trust. Although this was the first time that job insecurity was related to an objective measure of organizational withdrawal behaviors (Kopelman et al., 1992), Ashford et al. (1989) and

McCarthy (1992) had already shown that job insecurity is related to intention to quit. These same authors had also demonstrated evidence for the relationship between job insecurity and organizational commitment and organizational trust. Thus this research substantiated a number of important findings from earlier job insecurity research.

The last contribution of this research is its most important contribution. Job insecurity was found to be a partial mediator of the relationship between its antecedents and its consequences in two of three models tested. This finding offers initial evidence to suggest that theory may need to be modified. Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt had treated job insecurity as a complete mediator variable. The evidence here is only partially supportive of that position. In summary, job insecurity emerged as an important variable, yet one, like many others in the social sciences, that can be viewed as only partially explaining a set of relationships.

Overall, the evidence that emerged from this research contributed to theory in two principal ways. First, this evidence adds to some of the already existing evidence that previously supported Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt's theory. Second, this research was the first to test the moderating affects of individual differences and the mediating role of job insecurity. This latter contribution is of particular interest, as it is the more ground breaking of the two

principal contributions.

In light of these findings, how does job insecurity fare in terms of its overall quality of theory and what place does it occupy within the larger body of organizational theory? Miner (1980) outlined numerous criteria for evaluating the quality of a theory. Among these are that theory should be capable of 1) describing a phenomenon and a domain of interest, 2) offering explanation regarding the phenomenon, 3) aiding prediction, 4) assisting in influencing outcomes, and 5) directing research.

Describing: The principal motive and subsequent investigations of job insecurity have clearly added to our understanding of its content domain. Further, reliable and valid measures of the construct have been developed and successfully tested (Ashford, et al., 1989). From a descriptive standpoint, job insecurity theory appears to be on a sound footing.

Explaining: This research contributed to an increased understanding of the functioning of job insecurity within its nomological network. While more research on additional antecedents, outcomes, and moderators is warranted, we know a great deal more than when Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt (1984) identified job insecurity as a construct of organizational importance.

Predicting: The evidence generated here also helps us to understand the types of antecedents of job insecurity and

outcomes associated with it. Although a fully predictive model is still not within our grasp, we have seen that job insecurity tends to predict negative organizational attachment attitudes and behaviors which are indicative of individual desire to leave the organization.

Influencing: In terms of influencing organizational outcomes, job insecurity theory has begun to offer the potential for managerial policy. These will be taken up in the next section.

Directing Research: The lion's share of job insecurity research has focused upon measurement and validation. These research efforts have been supplemented, albeit minimally, by research that examined organizationally relevent outcomes. This research effort was an example of how Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt's theory was useful in guiding research.

So what can be said in terms of evaluating the quality of job insecurity theory? Given the five criteria outlined above, it appears that job insecurity theory gets reasonably fair marks. Of course, job insecurity is among a class of variables and theories that are principally couched in humanistic philosophy where fairness in human exchange is valued and advocated. Try only fathom job insecurity outside of this orienting perspective--left to fend for itself among the likes of population ecology or economic determinism and job insecurity theory will figuratively

click its two heels together and repeat 'There's no place like home'. Taken in full measure, job insecurity (read job security) theory rests upon a foundation of humanistic philosophy. Absent that perspective, job insecurity theory and its facts may sit atop something more pillow-like than solid, settling gradually, maybe/maybe not reaching tera-firma. Is this to diminish the importance of job insecurity theory? Certainly not within the popular imagination. Also, likely not within the machinations of union leadership or the rank and file. Even if the importance of job insecurity theory boils down to a question of orienting perspective, it is too great a part of popular lore about what is right and desirable to pass silently from us in the night.

In sifting through the evidence and the influence of popular media attention, we come away with the knowledge that job insecurity does indeed have statistical significance. While it is not the complete conduit by which the influence of its antecedents pass on to influence organizationally relevant outcomes, it does express a significant portion of this variability. Should managers care? Perhaps the jury is not yet out. None the less, if managers remained concerned about reductions in organizational attitudes such as commitment and trust and, equally so, if managers care about employee flight, then the evidence suggests they should be concerned about the adverse

impact of job insecurity.

What we still do not know is if job insecurity will remain a hot topic or will cool with time. One might argue that the heat of job insecurity is a function of white collar workers getting a taste of a something long known to their blue collar compatriots. The subsequent media attention is a natural outcome of savvy management with extensive media contacts. The bottom line is that managers and blue collar workers alike share a disdain for holding a pink slip with their name on it. In this sense, this period of focus upon job insecurity theory may be an historical guidepost marking the end to the separation of classes of workers from the experience of job insecurity. Enter the age of the one-day-contract for all.

Implications for Practice

The purpose of this research was twofold: 1) to understand more about the antecedents and consequences of job insecurity and 2) to offer an opportunity for constructive response to this organizational issue. The second of these two purposes is now addressed.

This research focused upon managers. The reason for this was that managers have shouldered a larger share of job losses than ever before in the U.S.. What is it like for managers and what kinds of steps are managers taking to cope with heightened job insecurity?

The first step in answering these questions was to look at what causes job insecurity. The evidence suggested that both organization level and macro level forces contribute to explaining the experience of job insecurity. This is important if organizations are to map out strategies or policies to deal with the issue. At the organization level, it was found that role ambiguity contributes to experienced job insecurity.

At the macro level, it was also found that broader forces have influenced an individual's sense of job insecurity. While it may be hard for an organization to deal directly with the latter of these two antecedents to job insecurity, organizations may be able to effectively deal with the issue of role ambiguity. On the one hand, improved superior-subordinate communication and information availability and access may help reduce role ambiguity and its link to job insecurity. On the other hand, it is possible that jobs which lack needed information flows are the first to be cut during management retrenchment. Rather than management supplying needed information, role ambiguity may be a tell-tale sign that one's job is in jeopardy.

Macro forces such as the economic condition of the country and the wholesale trend toward mergers may be less amenable to strategies or policies which can alleviate an individual's sense of job insecurity. Obviously, more research is needed to assess organizational responses to the

experience of job insecurity.

In terms of the practical implications of what happens after individuals experience job insecurity, this research confirmed that job insecurity is related to individuals acting to leave the organization and to lowered organizational commitment and organizational trust. This may be no problem at all for organizations which favor a type of natural downsizing via attrition. However, if organizations want to retain employees, then indifference to this issue may prove costly. If downsizing and employee attrition is viewed within the likely context of it being a trend in a larger cycle of economic contraction and expansion, then organizations may need to give greater attention to job insecurity when expansionary periods require the retention of skilled, trained, and productive employees.

The flip side, of course, is that job insecurity may contribute to higher organizational productivity. The question being: Do employees who experience job insecurity attempt to shield themselves from potential job loss by over compensating and giving more effort and hours to their firms in the hope that someone else other than they will face the ax? This is an important question, particularly the whole issue of the relationship between job insecurity and productivity. The New York Times series on job insecurity (1996) gave anecdotal attention to the aeronautics industry

in California which was badly hit by downsizing. Many of the employees who were interviewed knew in advance that their company was going to eliminate jobs but kept going extra tilt with the hope that added effort would get the company to change its decision to downsize. Their jobs were eventually eliminated. Again, this remains a ripe area of future research.

The underside of job insecurity is that it is a wake-up call. Job insecurity may be promoting a fundamental shift in attitudes away from the cliche of the 'gold watch' at the end of the career. More and more, individuals may be accepting job insecurity as the norm rather than the exception. Hall and Mirvis (1996) speak about the end of careers and the beginning of a focus on the acquisition of valuable skill sets.

We are seeing that increasing numbers of people are working outside of the corporate fold and holding temporary and long-term contingent work assignments. Some estimates put that number at twenty percent of the work force (New York Times, 1996). We may not have yet reached the day when the norm is the one day contract. Yet contributing to the bottom line is no longer a precept limited only to the upper ranks of an organization but has suffused thought at all organizational levels. Our theories which are predicated on organizational attachment such as organizational commitment (Mowday, Porter, and Steers, 1982) and the psychological

contract (Schein, 1965) advocate sustained employee/employer relationships that are, ideally, mutually beneficial arrangements. But the idea of a one day contract bases the attachment relationship on a different arrangement. The burden of sustained employment reverts to the employee who no longer seeks career length employment guarantees but, rather, training and skill sets that have transferable market value. The need to exert control and the ability to self-regulate (Deci, et al., 1989) remain primary motivating forces. But the means to that end is no longer the corporate attachment but rather the potential for skill enhancement via corporate affiliation.

To what extent are the results of this research generalizable beyond the current sample? Remembering that this research examined managers at lower, middle, and senior level ranks across a wide range of industries in the U.S., it seems plausible that the findings have some generality to U.S. managers outside of this sample. More research would be useful because most of the managers surveyed here held either Masters level degrees or were enroute to completing their Masters degree. It is yet unclear if managers with lower levels of education might differ in their experience from the current sample. At this juncture, the findings would probably best generalize to managers in the U.S. who also hold advanced academic degrees. No generalization is at this time forwarded for managers in firms that operate

outside of the U.S. It is reasonable to assume that the experience of job insecurity can generalize beyond the borders of the U.S. The execution of cross cultural research would first require that the instrument that measured job insecurity be empirically validated. Therefore, at this time, further research would be needed to determine if the models tested here have cross-cultural stability.

Limitations

Due to the cross-sectional design of this research, no conclusions about causality were forwarded. Thus the findings do not rule out alternative explanations such as reverse causality. Ashford et al. (1989) acknowledge that longitudinal research designs are needed to "assess the strength and duration of job insecurity's effects on outcomes" (P. 823). Given the preliminary nature of this investigation, it was believed that a cross-sectional study was warranted in that important theorized relationships might receive initial empirical support.

The reliance upon incumbent self-report has rendered the research vulnerable to the problem of common method bias. Thus, covariance among the variables may be attributable to the respondent, be it temporary mood or the urge to respond either consistently or in a socially desirable fashion rather than to actual underlying common

variance among the variables. Although this can not be entirely ruled out, Spector (1994) has suggested that self-report data are still a valuable means of finding out how people feel about their jobs and can yield beneficial insights. The statistical means for identifying the influence of common method bias can not fully eliminate this problem (cf. Podsakoff and Organ, 1986).

Spector cautioned that the major concern for the investigator is to avoid unwarranted interpretations of the data. Further, given the highly psychological nature of the constructs being examined, survey research is a practical means of scaling subjective data and perceptions of the environment (Podsakoff and Organ, 1986).

Response bias is another concern that was addressed by not providing advance knowledge to the subjects about the full nature of the study and by negative wording of some of the items, and by providing assurances of respondent anonymity.

Future Research

Future research should examine the degree to which the dimensions of job insecurity differ as predictors of specified outcomes. The Job Insecurity Scale is the first measure of job insecurity to include multiple dimensions of the construct: 1) threats to job features and 2) threats to the entire job. These dimensions were not tested for

differential influences upon outcome variables nor were they regressed on antecedent variables to determine if these variables differentially predict the different dimensions of job insecurity.

Future research should also investigate additional moderators of the hypothesized relationships such as negative affectivity, social support, and self-esteem (Ashford et al., 1989; Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt, 1984). These moderators were not included owing to the preliminary nature of this research and to avoid respondent fatigue given the length of the existing questionnaire.

Also, the questions related to organizational productivity are interesting potential areas of future research. Does job insecurity have a positive influence on productivity. Further, is this influence sustained or short-lived?

Conclusion

This research is contributory in a number of ways. The first contribution was the testing of a range of antecedents to job insecurity proposed by Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt (1984). In particular, role ambiguity and environmental conditions emerged as antecedents to job insecurity.

The second contribution of this research was the evaluating of the theorized influence of individual difference moderator variables upon the antecedents--job

insecurity relationship (Ashford, Lee, and Bobko, 1989; Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt, 1984; McCarthy, 1992). Locus of control emerged as an important moderator.

The third contribution of this research was gaining practical knowledge about how individuals experience and react to job insecurity. We know that job insecurity is positively related to job search behavior and negatively related to organizational commitment and to organizational trust. Job insecurity is an important variable for organizations to acknowledge if they are to be committed to retaining their talented employees and sustaining attitudes of organizational commitment and organizational trust.

The fourth contribution of this research was the sampling focus upon middle managers because their ranks now face greater threats to job security than at any other time in recent history (Gardner, 1995).

The fifth contribution of this research was the testing of the extent to which job insecurity mediates indirect effects of its antecedents upon outcome variables. This has been theorized but has yet to have been tested (Ashford et al., 1989; Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt, 1984; McCarthy, 1992). It was revealed in two of three models tested that job insecurity partially mediates the relationship between its antecedents and consequences.

APPENDICES

Appendix A

Dear Graduate of the Executive MBA Program,

What is it like to work under the enormous pressures of today's job market and how do we cope with these challenges? These are a few of the kinds of research questions that a fellow graduate of the Executive MBA Program of Baruch College needs your help in answering. My name is Bill Reisel and I am a Ph.D. candidate in management at the College. Some of you may know me as a classmate from Executive MBA class 8 and others from my tenure as President of the Executive MBA Alumni Association.

My doctoral dissertation focuses on managerial attitudes about modern day work conditions and how middle and senior managers deal with these conditions. As a member of my targeted research population, I would greatly appreciate it if you would take 15-20 minutes of your valuable time to complete the enclosed questionnaire. A business reply envelope is enclosed for your convenience.

A prompt reply would be most appreciated because, frankly, the sooner you do this, the sooner I can graduate. I wish I could say I have mugs or cash incentives to entice your participation. Unfortunately, I do not. I can only offer my sincere thanks and the knowledge that you have committed a very generous act. I will also gladly provide you with a report on the findings. Just note your interest on the questionnaire.

Be assured that all of your responses will remain absolutely confidential. All of the results will be presented as group averages to protect your individual privacy. I will not reveal your answers to anyone.

I extend to you my sincere thanks and I hope that you are doing great in your career.

Very truly yours,

William Reisel

Enclosures

Appendix B

Dear Graduate of the Masters in Labor Relations Program,

I am writing to you because I believe you can be a great help in a research project that is now under way. Phil Ross, of the MSILR program, has provided your name to me with the understanding that you might enjoy participating. The research that I am conducting, focuses on managerial attitudes about modern day work conditions and how managers deal with these conditions. Because many MSILR graduates have managerial positions, your views can help me to learn about what it is like for managers to work in this modern and challenging era. All I ask of you is one enormously generous thing: Stop what you're doing and donate 15-20 minutes of your valuable time to answer the enclosed questionnaire and return it to me in the enclosed business reply envelope.

Be assured that all of your responses will remain absolutely confidential. The results will be presented as group averages to protect your individual privacy. I will not reveal your answers to anyone.

I am very excited by this project and will gladly provide to you a summary of the research findings if you would like. To receive the findings, simply indicate your interest on the last page of the completed questionnaire. When the results are in, I'll mail a copy to you.

Your help in this research effort means a great deal to me. If it were within my means, I would gladly offer you something tangible in exchange for your valuable time. As it is, please accept in its stead my heartfelt and most sincere thanks.

Very truly yours,

William D. Reisel

Enclosures

Appendix C
Backward Elimination of Non-Significant Group Effects Interaction Terms

	Variables Not In Equations Dependent Variables		
Steps	Job Search Behavior	Organizational Commitment	Organizational Trust
1	Sex1	Mljob1	Miss1
2	Supsupp1	Mira1	Mlenv1
3	JIS1	Miss1	Mira1
4	Educat1	Mlenv1	Mlra1
5	Mlenv1	Mlcoh1	JIS1
6	Mienv1	Environ1	Sex1
7	Mlss1	Age1	Mienv1
8	Milay1	Mienv1	Milay1
9	Miss1	Jobalts1	age1
10	Mira1	Mlra1	Supsupp1
11	Mljob1	Milay1	Layoff1
12	Mlcoh1	Roleamb1	Mljob1
13	Environ1	Layoff1	Environ1
14	Layoff1	JIS1	Empten1
15	Mllay1	Supsupp1	Cohes1
16	Mlray1	Mijob1	Jobalts1
17	Environ1	Mlss1	Micoh1
18	Jobalts1	Mllay1	Mllay1
19	Cohes1	Micoh1	Roleamb1
20	Mijob1	Sex1	Mijob1
21	Micoh1	-	Educat1
22	Empten1	-	-

Variables In Equations		
Age1	Empten1	Mlcoh1
	Educat1	Mlss1
	Cohes1	

All terms are interactions of the main effects and the group indicator term.

APPENDIX D

RESEARCH SURVEY

The Information you are about to provide is Confidential. This survey asks for your views concerning your current work conditions. Your answers are completely confidential. This page has been numbered only for administration purposes and will not be tied to identifying your answers to anyone other than the administrator. Each section provides instructions. Please read the questions one at a time.

Please answer all questions that apply to you. Please allow approximately 15-20 minutes to complete the questionnaire. Thank you again for your participation in this survey. Your help is deeply appreciated.

This research is being administered by William D. Reisel with the authorization of the Human Subjects Committee of the Grants Office of Baruch College, The City University of New York. All inquiries should be directed to William Reisel, Department of Management, Box F-1827, Baruch College, 17 Lexington Avenue, New York, NY 10010.

Please begin the survey on the following page. Instructions for returning this survey is provided at the end along with a business reply envelope.

In your worklife, how important/unimportant are each of the following job features to you personally? Please circle the number of the description which best applies.

Very important.....1
Important.....2
Neither important nor unimportant.....3
Unimportant.....4
Very unimportant.....5

01. The city/state where you work	1	2	3	4	5
02. Having promotion opportunities	1	2	3	4	5
03. Maintaining your current base pay	1	2	3	4	5
04. Receiving periodic pay increases	1	2	3	4	5
05. Having status in your position	1	2	3	4	5
06. Scheduling your work	1	2	3	4	5
07. Performing your work as you want	1	2	3	4	5
08. Having access to resources	1	2	3	4	5
09. A sense of community at work	1	2	3	4	5
10. Getting supervisor's feedback	1	2	3	4	5
11. Having quality supervision	1	2	3	4	5
12. Reasonable physical job demands	1	2	3	4	5
13. Interacting with clients	1	2	3	4	5
14. Having a variety of tasks	1	2	3	4	5
15. Freedom to start and finish a job	1	2	3	4	5
16. Having significant impact on others	1	2	3	4	5
17. Knowing how well you are doing	1	2	3	4	5

Looking at the future of your current job, what is the chance that your job features may be changed. Please circle the number which best describes the likelihood of changes to your job features.

Change very likely.....1
Change likely.....2
Change neither likely nor unlikely.....3
Change unlikely.....4
Change very unlikely.....5

18. The city/state where you work	1	2	3	4	5
19. Having promotion opportunities	1	2	3	4	5
20. Maintaining your current base pay	1	2	3	4	5
21. Receiving periodic pay increases	1	2	3	4	5
22. Having status in your position	1	2	3	4	5
23. Scheduling your work	1	2	3	4	5
24. Performing your work as you want	1	2	3	4	5
25. Having access to resources	1	2	3	4	5
26. A sense of community at work	1	2	3	4	5
27. Getting supervisor's feedback	1	2	3	4	5
28. Having quality supervision	1	2	3	4	5
29. Reasonable physical job demands	1	2	3	4	5
30. Interacting with clients	1	2	3	4	5
31. Having a variety of tasks	1	2	3	4	5
32. Freedom to start and finish a job	1	2	3	4	5
33. Having significant impact on others	1	2	3	4	5
34. Knowing how well you are doing	1	2	3	4	5

Assume for a moment that each of the following events could happen to you; how desirable/undesirable is it to you personally? Please circle the number which best describes your view of this occurrence.

Very desirable.....1
Desirable.....2
Neither desirable nor undesirable.....3
Undesirable.....4
Very undesirable.....5

35. Being moved to a lower level job	1	2	3	4	5
36. Being moved to another job at the same level	1	2	3	4	5
37. Being moved to a higher position	1	2	3	4	5
38. Being moved to a higher position in a different region	1	2	3	4	5
39. Being given different work hours	1	2	3	4	5
40. Being temporarily laid off	1	2	3	4	5
41. Being permanently laid off	1	2	3	4	5
42. Being in a weakening department	1	2	3	4	5
43. Being fired	1	2	3	4	5
44. Being pushed into early retirement	1	2	3	4	5

Again, thinking about the future, how likely is it that each of these events might actually occur to you in your current job. Please circle the number which best describes the likelihood of this occurrence.

Very likely.....1
Likely.....2
Neither likely nor unlikely.....3
Unlikely.....4
Very unlikely.....5

45. Being moved to a lower level job	1	2	3	4	5
46. Being moved to another job at the same level	1	2	3	4	5
47. Being moved to a higher position	1	2	3	4	5
48. Being moved to a higher position in a different region	1	2	3	4	5
49. Being given different work hours	1	2	3	4	5
50. Being temporarily laid off	1	2	3	4	5
51. Being permanently laid off	1	2	3	4	5
52. Being in a weakening department	1	2	3	4	5
53. Being fired	1	2	3	4	5
54. Being pushed into accepting early retirement	1	2	3	4	5

Listed below are a number of phrases that describe conditions in the job environment. Please indicate if you are concerned that these conditions now threaten your job security.

Very concerned.....1
Concerned.....2
Neither concerned nor unconcerned.....3
Unconcerned.....4
Very unconcerned.....5

55. Economic decline	1	2	3	4	5
56. Stock market greed	1	2	3	4	5
57. Poor overall job market	1	2	3	4	5
58. Technology eliminates jobs	1	2	3	4	5
59. Global competition	1	2	3	4	5
60. Lower foreign labor costs	1	2	3	4	5
61. Your company will be acquired	1	2	3	4	5
62. Your company will merge	1	2	3	4	5
63. Your company will downsize	1	2	3	4	5
64. Your company will reorganize	1	2	3	4	5

In the space following each statement, please circle the number which best describes the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statement.

Strongly agree.....1
Agree.....2
Neither agree nor disagree.....3
Disagree.....4
Strongly disagree.....5

65. I have clear, planned goals and objectives for my work.	1	2	3	4	5
66. I know that I have divided my time properly for my work assignments.	1	2	3	4	5
67. I know my job responsibilities	1	2	3	4	5
68. I know what is expected of me	1	2	3	4	5
69. I feel certain about how much authority I have on the job	1	2	3	4	5
70. I have a clear explanation of what has to be done by me.	1	2	3	4	5
71. My company offers opportunity for promotion and advancement.	1	2	3	4	5
72. My company offers me a bright career picture.	1	2	3	4	5
73. My company offers me job security.	1	2	3	4	5
74. My company will not fire or lay me off in the next three years.	1	2	3	4	5

In the space following each statement, please circle the number which best describes the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statement.

Strongly agree.....1
Agree.....2
Neither agree nor disagree.....3
Disagree.....4
Strongly Disagree.....5

75. It would be easy for me to find a job with another employer.	1	2	3	4	5
76. It would be easy for me to find a job with another employer that is as good as the one I now have.	1	2	3	4	5
77. It would be easy to find a job with another employer that is better than the one I now have.	1	2	3	4	5
78. It would be easy to find a job with another employer that is much better than the one I now have.	1	2	3	4	5
79. People in my immediate work group are friendly.	1	2	3	4	5
80. I trust the members of my immediate work group?	1	2	3	4	5
81. The people in my immediate work group are helpful to me in getting my job done?	1	2	3	4	5
82. I look forward to being with the members of my immediate work group?	1	2	3	4	5

Listed below are a set of statements about your immediate superior. To what extent do you agree or disagree with each statement?

Strongly agree.....1
Agree.....2
Neither agree nor disagree.....3
Disagree.....4
Strongly Disagree.....5

83. Lets me know where I stand	1	2	3	4	5
84. Interferes too much	1	2	3	4	5
85. Does a good job	1	2	3	4	5
86. Always too busy to see me	1	2	3	4	5
87. Stands up for me	1	2	3	4	5
88. Quick tempered	1	2	3	4	5
89. Can discuss problems with boss	1	2	3	4	5
90. Hard to please	1	2	3	4	5

In the space following each statement, please circle the number which best describes the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statement.

Strongly agree.....1
Agree.....2
Neither agree nor disagree.....3
Disagree.....4
Strongly disagree.....5

91. I am treated fairly by my company.	1	2	3	4	5
92. I benefit from my company's success.	1	2	3	4	5
93. I trust the organization to lookout for my best interest.	1	2	3	4	5
94. I believe the top management has good intentions for me.	1	2	3	4	5

In the space following each statement, please circle the number which best describes the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statement.

Strongly agree.....1
Agree.....2
Neither agree nor disagree.....3
Disagree.....4
Strongly disagree.....5

95. When I make work plans, I am certain to make them work	1	2	3	4	5
96. I can pretty much determine what will happen in my life.	1	2	3	4	5
97. I can usually protect my personal interests	1	2	3	4	5
98. When I get what I want, it's usually because I work hard for it.	1	2	3	4	5
99. My life is determined by my own actions	1	2	3	4	5
100. I function very poorly whenever there is serious lack of communication in a job.	1	2	3	4	5
101. When other people evaluate me, I feel a great need for a clear evaluation.	1	2	3	4	5
102. If I am uncertain about the responsibilities for a job, I get very anxious.	1	2	3	4	5
103. I have enough power in the organization to control events that might affect my job.	1	2	3	4	5
104. In this organization, I can prevent negative things from affecting my work situation.	1	2	3	4	5
105. I understand this organization well enough to be able to control things that affect me.	1	2	3	4	5

Please circle 1 for yes and 2 for no.
During the past year have you:

	Yes	No
106. Read a book about getting a new job?	1	2
107. Revised your resume?	1	2
107. Sent copies of your resume to a prospective employer?	1	2
109. Contacted an employment agency or search firm to obtain a job?	1	2
110. Read the help wanted section of the papers?	1	2
111. Gone on a job interview?	1	2
112. Sought to transfer to a new job?	1	2
113. Talked to co-workers about getting a job in another organization?	1	2
114. Talked to friends or relatives about getting a job in another organization?	1	2
115. Made any telephone inquiries to prospective employers?	1	2

In the space following each statement, please circle the number which best describes the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statement.

Strongly agree.....1
Agree.....2
Neither agree nor disagree.....3
Disagree.....4
Strongly disagree.....5

116. I am concerned with issues behind changes	1	2	3	4	5
117. I am concerned with how changes will be carried out	1	2	3	4	5
118. I would like to know how likely the consequences are that may occur in a situation	1	2	3	4	5
119. I am concerned with the risks involved in changes	1	2	3	4	5

In the space following each statement, please circle the number which best describes the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statement.

Strongly agree.....1
Agree.....2
Neither agree nor disagree.....3
Disagree.....4
Strongly disagree.....5

120. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort to help this organization be successful.	1	2	3	4	5
121. I describe this organization to my friends as a great organization to work for.	1	2	3	4	5
122. I would accept almost any job assignment in order to keep working for this organization.	1	2	3	4	5
123. I find that my values and the organization's values are very similar.	1	2	3	4	5
124. I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization.	1	2	3	4	5
125. This organization really inspires the very best in me in my job performance.	1	2	3	4	5
126. I am extremely glad that I chose this organization to work for over others I was considering at the time I joined.	1	2	3	4	5
127. I really care about the fate of this organization.	1	2	3	4	5
128. For me this is the best organization to work for.	1	2	3	4	5

How likely is it that each of these organizational events may occur? Please circle the number which best describes the likelihood of this occurrence.

Very likely.....1
Likely.....2
Neither likely nor unlikely.....3
Unlikely.....4
Very unlikely.....5

129. Your company may go into decline.	1	2	3	4	5
130. Your company may undertake major restructuring.	1	2	3	4	5
131. Your company may accept new technologies that may eliminate jobs in the organization.	1	2	3	4	5
132. Your company may ask you to undertake dangerous work.	1	2	3	4	5

Please take a few moments to provide some background information about yourself. Circle one number for each question. This information is CONFIDENTIAL.

1. Your age is?....._____

2. Your sex is?..... Male..... 1
   Female..... 2

3. Your marital status is?..... Single..... 1
   Married.... 2
   Other..... 3

4. Your highest degree is? High School Diploma 1
   Associates Degree 2
   Undergraduate Degree 3
   Masters Degree 4
   Medical Degree 5
   Ph.D./Professional 6

5. The following category describes my current position.
   Owner/Partner 1
   Senior Manager 2
   Manager 3
   Supervisor 4
   Professional Staff 5

Operations 6
Entry Level 7

6. How long have you worked for your current employer? Years _____

7. What is your job title? _____

8. How long have you held this job title for your current employer? Years _____

9. What is your job rank in your company ?
Entry level 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 **Chief Executive**

	Yes	No
10. Have you been unemployed in the past 3 years?	1	2
11. Have you been laid off in the past 3 years?	1	2
12. Have you been fired in the past 3 years?	1	2
13. Are you a unionized worker?	1	2

14. How many hours per week do you work? _____

15. What is your total annual income from your work $_____

16. How many years until your retirement? _____

17. Of the remaining years before your retirement, how many years could you work for your company if you wanted? _____

Thank you for your participation in this survey. Please return the completed questionnaire in the attached postage paid envelope or mail to:

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