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Internal Attributes That Mitigate Perceived Job Insecurity: Improving Employee Satisfaction

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Walden University
2015

Abstract

Internal Attributes That Mitigate Perceived Job Insecurity:

Improving Employee Satisfaction

by

Shelly Leigh Rogers-Sharer

MA, University of Mary Hardin-Baylor, 2004

BA, Central Bible College, 2000

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Psychology

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Abstract

Employee satisfaction has been found to have a strong relationship with perceived job security. This study explored job insecurity in an unstable global economy. Specifically, it examined internal attributes of employees, hypothesizing that such attributes would enable employees to better cope with work-related stressors such as job insecurity. Specific attributes of personality and employability were assessed as potential moderators of job satisfaction and security, utilizing the theory of work adjustment and person-environment correspondence as theoretical frameworks. The specific attributes included facets of conscientiousness and neuroticism as well as dispositions of employability including openness to change at work, work and career resilience, work and career proactivity, career motivation, and work identity. Multiple regression tests analyzed the relationship between these internal attributes and both job insecurity and satisfaction on a convenience sample of 100 participants from 2 companies. Participants completed online assessments of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire; the NEO Personality Inventory, 3rd edition (NEO-PI-3); and the Dispositional Measure of Employability. The findings of this study showed significant relationships between both work and career resiliency and vulnerability and both job satisfaction and perceived job security. Employees, employers, and future researchers may benefit from the findings. Results suggest options for improving the work environment by enabling employees to derive greater satisfaction and security and by providing employers areas for training opportunities. Additionally, future research could explore methodologies, such as mindfulness and cognitive appraisal, which may further increase resiliency and decreasing vulnerability.

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Dedication

I would like to dedicate this work to the Lord and my family. My faith is an ever-present strength to me. It has given me a resolve and dedication, even in the times of doubt. Also, my family has been a consistent support during my doctoral program. My husband and children have sacrificed to ensure my success, and I could not have accomplished this capstone without their love and encouragement. They deserve so much more than this dedication, but my love and heart go out to them through it. My parents have also given of themselves selflessly. They have always been there for me, and I thank them for the determination and achievement motivation they instilled in me. Without my faith and family, I could not have endured.

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I would also like to thank my other committee members, Dr. Susan Rarick and Dr. James Brown, for their contributions to my work. They certainly helped to keep me focused and on topic.

Lastly, I would like to thank the rest of my friends and colleagues. I have a wonderful network of people whose belief in me has never wavered. Through the past several years they have cried, laughed, and prayed with me.

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Work is an integral part of a human's life. Through work, one obtains the resources to survive. Work also provides a sense of accomplishment and purpose in life. With the advent of capitalism, work has brought hope for the improvement of status by way of what has become affectionately known as *the American dream*. The working American between the ages of 25 and 54 will work on average 8.8 hours a day, with more time dedicated to work than to any other activity, including sleeping (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2012). As a result, work becomes a defining characteristic of an individual. Dawis and Lofquist (1969), leading theorists of vocational psychology, referred to the research of their University of Chicago colleagues in discussing the functionality of work:

> Work is the means of maintaining a certain standard of living, a certain level of existence, and also of achieving some higher level or standard. Work is something to do, a way of filling the day or passing the time. Work is a source of self-respect, a way of achieving recognition or respect from others. Work defines one's identity, one's role in the society of which he is a part. Work provides the opportunity for association with others, for building friendships. Work allows for self-expression, provides the opportunity for creativity, for new experiences. Finally, work permits one to be of service to others. (p. 10)

This definition implies that work pervades every aspect of an individual's life, emphasizing the significance of its function. This also suggests the reason that individuals will suffer many negative effects should their jobs become compromised. People are faced with the reality of losing their identity, means of living, and status

among peers. Therefore, the fear of job loss, whether a real or perceived threat, is a danger to a person's phenomenological world.

Job loss and job insecurity are known characteristics of socioeconomic strife (Meltzer et al., 2010). Throughout history, the world has progressed through patterns of economic change. These patterns have developed the cliché that history will repeat itself. The cycles of history are measured by periods of growth and advancement followed by periods of uncertainty and economic turmoil. In recent times, these periods of decline in economic activity have been called *recessions*. According to the National Bureau of Economic Research (NBER; 2010a), recessions cover a period of time between the peak of one economic expansion and the trough before the next expansion. In the half century between 1960 and 2001, the United States endured seven periods of recession, each extending an average of 11.5 months (Keilis-Borok, Soloviev, Intriligator, & Winberg, 2008). In the decade since 2004, the United States has experienced the longest recession since the Great Depression, lasting 18 months between December 2007 and June 2009 (NBER, 2010b).

Analysts attempt to predict these patterns of recession by identifying variables that both precede the anticipated event and indicate the recession's end. One such variable that tends to precede economic recession is the Economic Policy Uncertainty Index (EPUI). This index is comprised of statistical data gathered on the frequency of policy and economic uncertainty reported in major news media, the number of federal tax sanctions set to expire, and the degree of discrepancies among economic forecasters (Baker, Bloom, & Davis, 2012). While the EPUI is likely not causational to economic uncertainty, it is shown to predict patterns of economic stability. For example, as the

EPUI rises, industrial production decreases, and unemployment increases at a significant level (Baker et al., 2012). The level of economic uncertainty has been at an all-time high during the past few years. In fact, the EPUI has averaged twice the levels of uncertainty since 2008 as it did in the 23 years prior to this time (Economic Policy Uncertainty, 2012). The effects of this economic turmoil have led to upheaval in American society, affecting both the security of businesses and the welfare of individuals within them. For this reason, additional research on areas that could moderate the results of this economic uncertainty is warranted, as business is relevant to global economic functioning as well as to the individual lives of those working.

Many current studies have emphasized external moderators of job insecurity such as managerial support (Wood & de Menezes, 2011), training programs (Hankins, 2012), procedural justice (Loi, Lam, & Chan, 2012), and work contexts (van Dam, Oreg, & Schyns, 2008), all of which typically require implementation by the organization. Some research has suggested the possibility of internal attributes such as personality (Mak & Mueller, 2000; Naswall, Sverke, & Hellgren, 2005) and employability (Berntson, Näswall, & Magnus, 2010; De Cuyper, Bernhard-Oettel, Berntson, De Witte, & Alarco, 2008) as moderators, but these often lack specificity of employee characteristics that can be adaptable to economic change. Recognizing employee attributes that instill resiliency against an unstable job market can potentially (a) enable the individual to better prepare for the workforce and (b) inform organizations about which attributes are important to identify during hiring and training. Specific personal attributes that could possibly accomplish these means and improve working conditions were explored in this study.

As decades of research have done the same, multidimensional aspects of personal attributes that have shown to be most pertinent in past research were explored in this study. Personality has been studied in vocational psychology as specifically influential in person-environment fit (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Holland, 1996). Further studies indicated that high Conscientiousness and low Neuroticism are the best personality predictors of job characteristics such as insecurity and satisfaction (Barrick, Mount, & Li, 2013; Blackmore & Kuntz, 2011; Bono & Judge, 2003; Bozionelos, 2004; Judge & Ilies, 2002; McCormick & Burch, 2008; Neal, Yeo, Koy, & Xiao, 2012; Panaccio & Vandenberghe, 20012). However, these traits are considered to be relatively permanent patterns that present challenges for implementing social change; thus, additional research on dimensions of these traits has been suggested (Neal et al., 2012; Wille, De Fruyt, & Feys, 2013). The five factor model identifies personality traits as multidimensional constructs, composed of specific facets, which tend to show greater malleability (Paunonen & Nicol, 2001). McCrae and Costa (2010) identified six facets of Conscientiousness and Neuroticism, which have been used in vocational research to identify relationships between personality and work ethic (Christopher, Zabel, & Jones, 2008), leadership (McCormick & Burch, 2008), attachment at work (Neustadt, Chamorro-Premuzic, & Furnham, 2006), and gender differences in career choice (Powell, Goffin, & Gellatly, 2011). These same facets of personality traits, known to be associated with aspects of work-related behavior, were explored in this study as potential mitigating influences on the effects of job insecurity and employee satisfaction.

Personal attributes that reflect successful assimilation into the work environment during economic turbulence are not limited to personality. *Employability* has become a

new catch word, indicating a person's ability to obtain and maintain employment as a valuable commodity to any given employer (Berntson & Marlund, 2007; Wille et al., 2013). The concept of employability has become controversial as researchers have attempted to define and quantify this construct. Research supports the proposition that employability is also a multidimensional construct, made up of dispositions that increase the perception that one can easily obtain new employment (De Battisti, Gilardi, Ricco, Siletti, & Solari, 2011). In 2004, Fugate, Kinicki, and Ashforth proposed three dispositions to comprise employability: Career Identity, Personal Adaptability, and Social and Human Capital. Fugate (2006) continued the work on dispositional employability, identifying more clearly defined elements of employability than originally reported. Finally, in 2008, Fugate and Kinicki established, through multiple studies, five distinct dispositions of employability: openness to change at work, work and career resilience, work and career proactivity, career motivation, and work identity. Although this theory is relatively new, these dispositions have been supported by additional research in the years following (Bangerter, Roulin, & Konig, 2012; De Cuyper, Raeder, Van der Heijden, & Wittekind, 2012). Evidence shows employability, as an entire construct, improved employee satisfaction and perceived job security, but these specific dispositions, which might influence employment variables, was explored in this study (Berntson et al., 2010; De Cuyper et al., 2008; Silla, De Cuyper, Gracia, Peiró, & De Witte, 2009).

Early vocational psychologists attempted to describe the nature of the relationship between employee and employer. Following in that vein, possibilities of matching personnel via their personality and employability dispositions to their working

environment were examined in this study. This concept has practical implications, as person-environment fit is foundational to vocational psychology. Also, this principle has been fundamental to theoretical propositions for decades. However, further research might lead to new implementation of these theories in accordance with the changing global economy. An introduction to these theories is provided as a foundation for the relevance of this study.

Theoretical Frameworks

Research in vocational psychology dates back to the World Wars and has brought about new enlightenments about the psychological effects of work. Practical application has been the emphasis of research within vocational psychology since its beginnings in the 1920s (Cattell, 1923). As more findings were presented, psychologists recognized the need to organize the information into conceptual theories. One such theory was proposed by the Work Adjustment Project at the University of Minnesota, which studied the relationship between employer and employees.

Theory of Work Adjustment

In 1964, Dawis, England, and Lofquist worked together on the Work Adjustment Project and formulated an original version of the theory of work adjustment (TWA; Dawis, Lofquist, & Weiss, 1968). TWA was an attempt to address concerns in the workplace. These concerns included career selection, hiring considerations, job performance, and job satisfaction. The authors acknowledged the significance of individuals identifying career paths that suit their abilities and personality as well as the company selecting a person that aligns with its position (Dawis et al., 1968). However, TWA focuses on the ever-changing relationship between an employee and employer after

the hiring has occurred. The requirement of both the employee and the employer to alter

their offerings in the relationship as the circumstances of each change is called *work*

adjustment (Dawis et al., 1968). This concept of work adjustment is essential to the

present-day workforce, which demands that employees constantly modify their skills to

meet the changing needs of business. Internal attributes that may make this process of

adjustment more amicable were the consideration of this study. TWA identifies the

aspects of both the employee and employer that can be adjusted to improve this

relationship.

The employee comes into the relationship with two relevant variables: (a) skills or

abilities and (b) needs or values, which are called the employee's *work personality*

(Dawis, 2000; Dawis et al., 1968). The employer's two variables are (a) tasks or "ability

requirements" and (b) reinforcers or "reinforcement values," which are considered the

"work environment" (Dawis, 2000; Dawis et al., 1968). Employees are hired to perform

specific tasks for which they receive reinforcers (i.e., money, vacation time, sick leave,

milestone rewards, etc.). Their abilities must meet the requirements of the tasks to

acquire the reinforcers. By contrast, the reinforcers must meet the needs or values of the

person. This perpetuates reciprocal satisfactoriness (performance) and satisfaction,

which maintains the relationship between the work personality and the work environment

or, in other words, creates tenure (Dawis et al., 1968). Logical reasoning would indicate

that internal attributes of individuals are influential in determining their work personality.

This study examined these attributes, including a person's tendency to clearly define a

work identity and to be open and proactive in learning skills required by a company.

Also, personality factors such as competence, order, achievement striving, self-discipline,

deliberation, and dutifulness—characteristics that make up Conscientiousness—are likely influential in developing employee abilities. If these internal attributes are actually significant to work correspondence, then, according to TWA, they would also impact a person's satisfaction, performance, and tenure. Therefore, these internal attributes, which perceivably enhance the employee's work personality, were explored in this study as to whether or not they actually relate to employee satisfaction and job security.

As time progresses, the tasks required by a company may change. This mandates that individuals alter their skills in order to maintain the relationship. By contrast, phase-of-life events (i.e., marriage, child bearing, buying a home) may alter the needs of the individual and demand that the company to provide different reinforcers (i.e., raises, spouse/child benefits). As a result, work personality-work environment correspondence requires continual adjustments to maintain satisfaction and satisfactoriness. TWA proposes that four factors influence perpetual correspondence: activeness, reactiveness, flexibility, and perseverance (Dawis, 2000; Dawis & Lofquist, 1984). This is also known as an employee's *adjustment style* (Dawis & Lofquist, 1993). If the person directly effects change in the company's ability requirements or reinforcement values, this is termed *activeness*, whereas the person self-changing his or her abilities and values is *reactiveness* (Dawis, 2000). Activeness and reactiveness are by definition congruent with Fugate's (2008) concepts of work and career proactivity and career motivation. Furthermore, the person's tolerance before change is demanded in the relationship is considered *flexibility*, and the determination to make those changes before the person leaves the position is considered the individual's *perseverance* (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984). A person's tendency to be flexible and perseverant is likely impacted by personal

characteristics. Internal attributes thought to specifically affect flexibility and perseverance include work and career resilience as well as emotional stability or the converse of Neuroticism facets. Accordingly, if these attributes improve an employee's likelihood of remaining with a company, then these attributes might also relate to employee satisfaction and security.

Research has supported many of the assumptions of TWA, including the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance (Edwards, Bell, Arthur, & Decuir, 2008) and the effects of these on tenure (Natarajan & Nagar, 2011). While many variables are identified by TWA as affecting job satisfaction and satisfactoriness, one of these, job insecurity, has become a prominent aspect in modern research. The original authors of TWA recognized job insecurity as significant to correspondence and included it in their assessment that measures employee satisfaction (Work Adjustment Project, 1967). Recent research elaborates on the effects of job insecurity on satisfaction and performance (Reisel, Swee-lim, Maloles, & Slocum, 2007) as well as on tenure (Staufenbiel & Konig, 2010). This suggests a relationship between job insecurity and the internal attributes of personality and employability previously identified, which affect an individual's propensity to be satisfied. These potential relationships are examined to identify significant relevance.

TWA focuses on the person as the central point of adjustment, which substantiates maintaining focus on employee characteristics as catalysts to improved work correspondence. However, the conclusions of this study emphasize how both the individual and the company can use the findings in practical applications. This focus on the adjustment of both employee and employer also adheres to a more modern theory,

person-environment correspondence (PEC). PEC, a revision of TWA by the original

theorists, addresses the roles and responsibilities of both the individual and the

environment (Dawis, 2000).

Person-Environment Correspondence

PEC expanded TWA to include relationships between any environment and

person (Dawis & Lofquist. 1993). However, focus of this study emphasizes the

relationship specific to the work environment. Regarding the work environment, TWA

proposes that satisfactoriness in an employee does not equate to satisfaction of an

employee and vice versa (Eggerth, 2008). Dissatisfaction, then, on either part results in

dissonance and potential loss of the relationship. PEC adds to this by proposing that the

flexibility shown by either the person or the work environment is affected by both

intrinsic variables (i.e., personality or organizational structure) and extrinsic variables

(i.e., alternative choices of either employment or employees; Winter, 2009). This

expanded concept is significant to PEC because it acknowledges not only the ability of

the individual to adjust through activeness and reactiveness, but also the capacity of the

employer to adjust.

The propositions of PEC maintain many of the same premises of TWA. For

instance, both theories indicate that humans have a tendency to desire and seek methods

of maintaining correspondence with their environments (Loquist & Dawis, 1991). Also,

both the person and the environment have idiosyncratic abilities, ability requirements,

values, and reinforcement values that make each potential person-environment

correspondence unique from all others (Lofquist & Dawis, 1991). Therefore, the

principles of PEC merely enhance TWA and continue to align with the focus of this

study. Finally, the concept that correspondence is perceptual is congruent with the concept that job insecurity is also relative. This suggests that perceived job insecurity and satisfaction also have an affective component and may be influenced by an individual's internal attributes. Both the original authors and modern theorists proposed that identifying personality variables could reveal a connection with both perceived discorrespondence and adjustment style (Dawis & Lofquist, 1976; Tinsley, 1993). This supports the direction and focus of this study.

The Big Five Personality Factors

Trait perspectives on personality have been in existence for hundreds of decades, challenging researchers to select aspects of personality that best define the entirety of human behavior within a few concepts. At the turn of the 20th century, psychologists were incongruent regarding the definition of personality. Cattell (1943), as a major proponent of standardized measurement, asserted that personality could not be clearly defined until specific, universal characteristics of personality could be described. Allport and Allport (1921) argued that labeling personality was only semantics and lacked the ability to convey the patterns of behavior being observed. Allport and Odbert (1936) and later Cattell (1944, 1945) attempted to list traits that completely described human personality, but the complexity and number of their trait factors made them unmanageable in practical application. Similarities between the lists of traits were apparent, but the definition of personality was still vague (Tupes & Christal, 1961). Tupes and Christal (1961) gathered the existing research on trait perspectives of personality and identified the primary themes. Their research led to one of the most

prominent theories of personality traits, the big five theory of personality or the five factor model (FFM).

This theory has been widely accepted as adequate in describing personality and predicting behaviors (Barrick & Mount, 1991). Tupes and Christal asserted that these factors are unchanging dimensions, allowing for research and measurement of personality (Christal, 1992). Additionally, these traits have been used for decades in applied psychology, especially in vocational psychology. The big five theory has been applied to innumerable business-related studies regarding career compatibility (Holland, 1996), quality management (Hayes, Roehm, & Castellano, 1994), and collective performance and leadership ability (Hofmann & Jones, 2005). The big five factors of personality assist in predicting worker behavior and position selection (Christal, 1992). In fact, assessment tools used to measure personality according to the five factor model are the most widely used around the world (Fazeli, 2012). The decades of research supporting this theory, the simple and yet comprehensive nature of its explanation of personality, and the broad acceptance of it within vocational psychology established the FFM as an applicable choice for personality measurement in this study.

This theory asserts that an individual's personality can be generally assessed by describing it on five continuum dimensions that are bipolar in nature (Tupes & Christal, 1961). Originally, the five dimensions were labeled Surgency, Agreeableness, Dependability, Emotional Stability, and Culture (Tupes & Christal, 1961), but through the years they have come to be labeled Openness to Experience, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness, and Neuroticism (Fazeli, 2012). As mentioned previously, the two dimensions that were explored in this study were Conscientiousness and

Neuroticism. Originally called Dependability, the dimension of Conscientiousness initially indicated conformity, responsibility, organization, and loyalty, with the converse suggesting a person of flexibility and imagination (Tupes & Christal, 1961). The modern dimension of Conscientiousness places more emphasis on an individual as orderly, detail-oriented, resolute, diligent, and dedicated, by contrast to someone who is disorganized, chaotic, unscheduled, and lackadaisical (Fazeli, 2012). The newer model is more relevant to this study, proposing that these characteristics are significant for improving job-related qualities. From a TWA perspective, facets of Conscientiousness are skills or abilities demanded by a company and affect a person's ability to have his or her needs met. If these facets satisfy the expectations of both the company and the employee, then tenure is achieved. Thus, the facets of Conscientiousness were expected to impact both security and satisfaction.

The dimension of Emotional Stability is now known as Neuroticism. The names of these past and present traits are the bipolarities of each other, but represent the same dimension. One end of the spectrum describes a person who is calm, serene, independent, composed, self-assured, and emotionally insightful, while the Neuroticism polarity suggests emotional instability, unreliability, and tendencies toward being easily flustered and disturbed (Fazeli, 2012; Tupes & Christal, 1961). The nature of this dimension suggests emotional well-being that would enable an employee to cope in difficult working conditions. PEC would indicate that an emotionally stable individual would be more easily reinforced and thus improve satisfaction. Also, high work expectations from the employer are connected to decreased emotional well-being and increased absenteeism and poor productivity (D'Souza, Strazdins, Broom, Rodgers, &

Berry, 2006; Labeau, Waters, & Grant-vallone, 2012). This suggests that high

Neuroticism facets decrease person-environment fit and likely negatively affect both job

security and satisfaction.

The significance of the trait perspectives of personality is the predictability of

future behaviors by identifying these relatively stable characteristics within an individual

(Tupes & Christal, 1961). Conscientiousness and Neuroticism are considered the most

influential to job-related variables, and so are the most logical traits to further explore

here (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Bozionelos, 2004; Hankins, 2012). Identifying facets of

these personality traits can assist in predicting which attributes are best suited as coping

mechanisms within the workplace. Further examination of these traits and the applicable

function of them in this study is presented later in Chapter 2.

Dispositions of Employability

Employability, by use of modern semantics, is a relatively new concept within

vocational psychology, becoming emphasized in the 1990s as a means of members of the

general population to enhance their desirability in the workforce by contrast to

experiencing job insecurity (Forrier, 2003). This concept emerged as economic

uncertainty increased and traditional employment patterns of remaining with a single

organization for the entirety of one's career decreased in prevalence. Employability has

been generally defined as the perception of an individual's value in obtaining and

maintaining employment. This suggests that a highly employable person can both acquire

a job easily and suffer fewer effects of job insecurity (Wittekind, Raeder, & Grote, 2010).

However, employability has been declared a broad term, being multidimensional in

context and application (Wille, et al., 2013). The ambiguity of this term has resulted in

conflicting perspectives on how to measure and practically use its function (Fugate &

Kinicki, 2008). Therefore, new theories have emerged in an attempt to define the

constructs of employability and thus make this vague concept more practical in practice.

Fugate et al. (2004) began the development of one such theory by identifying

specific dispositions of employability. These dispositions were suggested to have unique

properties with measurable characteristics. Thus, their theory proposed "that an

individual's employability subsumes a host of person-centered constructs that combine

synergistically to help workers effectively adapt to the myriad of work-related changes

occurring in today's economy" (p. 15). As previously mentioned, the original three

dispositions of employability were later expanded to include five distinct dispositions.

Openness to change at work is a characteristic that suggests that an individual is

adaptable to work fluctuation, whether in learning new skills, transitioning to a new

position, or feeling comfortable in seeking new employment. The emphasis of this

dimension is continuous learning and flexibility (Fugate, 2006). Being open and flexible

in abilities and job duties is expected to increase the perception that one is valuable to an

employer and thus reduce job insecurity. Work and career resilience reflects

characteristics associated with positive self-evaluations, including optimism and high

self-esteem (Fugate & Kinicki, 2008). These characteristics are shown to have a direct

negative relationship with Neuroticism, suggesting that this disposition will be

conversely related to job aspects of interest in this study (Bono & Judge, 2003). Work

and career proactivity is a skill that involves engaging in futuristic planning. This can

entail looking ahead to potential stressors, recognizing possible challenges ahead, and

developing awareness about the marketplace and potential job opportunities (Fugate,

2006). Proactivity has previously been identified as a trait that improves performance

(Fuller, Kester, & Cox, 2010) and satisfaction (Li, Liang, & Crant, 2010). This supports

exploration of this trait as well in terms of improving employability and decreasing

effects of job insecurity. Career motivation encompasses characteristics such as internal

drive, persistence when challenged, goal-directed orientation, and sustaining effort

(Fugate, 2006). Motivation tends to increase perceptions of control in the workplace,

positively impacting satisfaction (Orpen, 1994). Thus, career motivation might also

improve perceptions of job insecurity, influenced by discernible control, and mitigate its

effects on employee satisfaction. Finally, work identity is the perception of one's

purpose and place in the work environment that often directs decisions and behaviors

regarding one's career (Fugate & Kinicki, 2008). A work identity is derived from

experiences encountered as well as future expectations of one's role in the workplace

(Fugate, 2006). The more clearly potential employees can define their abilities, assets,

and goals, the greater the chance of procuring a position that best fits their career identity.

PEC supports the proposition that higher person-environment fit improves satisfaction

and likely decreases perceived insecurity. Therefore, high work identity as an

employability disposition warrants examination in this study.

Focus of this study remained on these five dimensions of dispositional

employability, tested and validated when Fugate and Kinicki (2008) developed a method

for measuring them in the Dispositional Measurement of Employability (DME).

Although this theory is relatively new, research supports the idea that employability tends

to improve attributes that promote correspondence in the employment relationship,

suggesting that they might also decrease job insecurity and increase employee

satisfaction, as per theoretical propositions of TWA and PEC (Bangerter et al., 2012; De Cuyper et al., 2012).

Definitions of Terminology

The following are definitions of frequently used terms in this study:

Abilities: Skills that can be both innate and learned by an individual; one of the factors that comprises work personality (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984).

Ability requirements: Tasks demanded by a work environment; dictated by the position of employment within the company (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984).

Activeness: The direct influence a person has on the work environment to change either its ability requirements or its reinforcement values (Dawis, 2000).

Adjustment style: The tendencies of a person to adjust and maintain a correspondence with his or her environment. This includes the combination of flexibility, perseverance, activeness, and reactiveness (Dawis & Lofquist, 1993).

Agreeableness: A factor of the big five trait theory of personality that is measured on a bipolar continuum of a person's tendency toward trust, helpfulness, kindness, compliance, compassion, and empathy (Fazeli, 2012).

Career Motivation: A disposition of employability that includes an individual's drive to be persistent toward specific, career-oriented goals (Fugate & Kinicki, 2008).

Conscientiousness: A factor of the big five trait theory of personality that is measured on a bipolar continuum of a person's tendency toward tidiness, organization, dependability, conformity, and planning (Fazeli, 2012). This was originally known as *Dependability* (Tupes & Christal, 1961).

Correspondence: The mutual responsiveness between an individual and the environment. It is the concept that in the workplace, an individual must meet the needs of the employer using abilities and, in turn, the employer provides appropriate reinforcers to satisfy the employee to maintain a congenial working relationship (Dawis et al., 1968).

Extraversion: A factor of the big five trait theory of personality that is measured on a bipolar continuum of a person's tendency toward friendliness, outgoingness, sociability, activeness, and optimism (Fazeli, 2012). This was originally called *Surgency* (Tupes & Christal, 2012).

Flexibility: The level of tolerance a person exhibits before he or she reaches a point of dissatisfaction that results in action toward adjustment (Dawis, 2000).

Neuroticism: A factor of the big five trait theory of personality that is measured on a bipolar continuum of a person's tendency toward emotional instability, unreliability, negative emotionality, and pessimism (Fazeli, 2012). This was originally measured by the other end of the continuum and called *Emotional Stability* (Tupes & Christal, 2012).

Openness to Change at Work: A disposition of employability that emphasizes continuous learning, adaptability, and positive attitudes when challenged (Fugate & Kinicki, 2008).

Openness to Experience: A factor of the big five trait theory of personality that is measured on a bipolar continuum of a person's tendency toward imaginative thinking, creativity, flexibility, spontaneity, and aesthetic sensitivity (Fazeli, 2012). This factor was originally called *Culture* and reflected a person's social propriety and awareness (Tupes & Christal, 1961).

Perseverance: The amount of effort a person is willing to exert during an adjustment period before choosing to discontinue the relationship with a specific environment (Dawis, 2000).

Reactiveness: The direct action a person takes to change either the abilities or values within his or her work personality (Dawis, 2000).

Reinforcement values: Categorization of reinforcers offered by the company to meet the needs or values of an employee; one of two components of the work environment (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984).

Satisfaction: The degree to which an individual receives reinforcers that encourage the employee to maintain a working relationship with the company. This is dependent upon the unique characteristics and priorities of the individual (Dawis, 2000).

Tenure: The longevity of the relationship between a person and the environment or between an employee and employer (Dawis, 2000).

Values: Needs of an individual within any given relationship; a reflection of a person's priorities; also one of the factors of work personality (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984).

Work and Career Resilience: A disposition of employability that encompasses positive self-evaluations, optimism, and high self-esteem (Fugate & Kinicki, 2008).

Work and Career Proactivity: A disposition of employability that suggests that an individual has foresight into potential challenges and stressors and seeks information to increase awareness of opportunities, such as other job options or transfers, which could protect the individual in difficult times (Fugate & Kinicki, 2008).

Work environment: Includes both the tasks and reinforcers of the company in which a person is employed; can also be categorized into ability requirements and reinforcement values (Dawis et al., 1968).

Work identity: A disposition of employability that involves an individual's definition of his or her function, experience, goals, and abilities within the workplace (Fugate & Kinicki, 2008).

Problem Statement

Recent economic recessions have resulted in emotional duress regarding the stability of employment, which has affected both the satisfaction and performance of employees (Meltzer et al., 2010). Yet businesses continue to struggle with meeting demands of quality, productivity, and profitability (Reisel et al., 2007). The combination of these factors has led to millions of employees being laid off and the unemployment rate doubling in the past five years (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2011). The majority of these layoffs occur in organizations supporting more than 500 employees, which comprise over 50% of the civilian workforce in the United States (U.S. Census Bureau, 2011). Those who maintain their jobs are aware of the need for decreasing overhead and increasing capital by businesses, thus perpetuating fear of job loss. Also, people use social comparisons to acquire attitudes, which further disseminate fear and anxiety among employees (Morewedge, 2009). Conclusively, employee perception of job insecurity is increasing, incurring a negative relationship with job satisfaction (Sverke, Hellgren, & Näswall, 2002) and job quality (Probst, 2002). Additionally, perceived job insecurity is found to negatively impact an employee's emotional and physical well-being (Furnham & Schaeffer, 1984; Meltzer et al., 2010; Schreurs, van Emmerik, Notelaers, &

De Witte, 2010.) Therefore, job insecurity is a social problem affecting directly and indirectly many aspects of the American way of life. The current global economy increases the chances that job insecurity will be a persistent provocation, requiring intervention to mitigate its effects.

Purpose of the Study

Personality has been shown to be a moderator of work behavior (Bipp, 2010), job performance (Bono & Judge, 2003), and worker-related stressors (Naswall et al., 2005). Also, external variables such as employer support and leadership training have been shown to improve job satisfaction and performance (Hardré & Reeve, 2009; Hassan, Fuwad, & Rauf, 2010; Lim, 1997). However, research is lacking in the area of dispositional attributes of employees, including big five personality traits and dispositions of employability, which could mitigate the effects of perceived job insecurity.

Therefore, potential relationships between the perception of job insecurity and the employee's satisfaction were examined. Also, dispositional attributes of personality and employability that could mitigate this perception of job insecurity and possibly improve satisfaction were explored. Finally, an analysis of potential relationships between personality traits and dispositions of employability was conducted.

Nature of the Study

The nature of this study was quantitative, as the information gathered during this study were based on measurable assessments. This is consistent with the framework of the study, using TWA, PEC, the big five, and dispositional employability as theoretical foundations. Dawis, Lofquist, and Weiss (1968) originally developed a satisfaction scale to measure employees' perception of harmony between themselves and their employer.

This scale is known as the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ). In more recent years, Dawis and Lofquist (1993) modified their original theory of TWA to PEC but continued to support the assessments developed by the Work Adjustment Project. The MSQ includes a dimension of Job Insecurity, which is used to measure the intensity of perceived job insecurity. The NEO Personality Inventory, third edition (NEO-PI-3), was specifically developed based on the five factor model of the big five theory to quantifiably measure personality traits (Costa & McCrae, 1992). Dispositions of employability were also measured using Fugate and Kinicki's (2008) Dispositional Measure of Employability (DME), developed specifically for this purpose. The results of these assessments were analyzed using statistical computations of a correlation matrix and multiple regression analyses. The correlation matrix ascertained potential relationships between the independent variables of personality facets and dispositions of employability. The multiple regression analyses examined potential relationships between these independent variables and the dependent variables of job insecurity and employee satisfaction. Quantitative research satisfied the research questions and provided information on the degree of adjustment in perceived job insecurity and employee satisfaction predicted by the personal attributes of the employees. The methodology and specific processes of this study was further outlined in Chapter 3.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

Personal attributes including big five personality facets and dispositions of employability that might mitigate perceived job insecurity are explored in this study. Questions of whether or not the identified big five personality facets and dispositions of employability of full-time employees are related to their levels of job satisfaction were

answered. Finally, potential relationships between the facets of the big five personality traits and the identified dispositions of employability of full-time employees were assessed.

Research Question 1

Do any of the five dispositions of employability, as measured by the DME, or six facets of either Conscientiousness or Neuroticism, as measured by the NEO-PI-3, explain the variance in perceived job insecurity, as measured by the MSQ in full-time employees of companies/organizations with more than 500 employees?

Null Hypothesis 1 (H$_{0-1}$). None of the five dispositions of employability, as measured by the DME, will predict to statistical significance the variance in job insecurity, as reported in the MSQ.

Alternative Hypothesis 1 (H$_{1-1}$): At least one of the five dispositions of employability, as measured by the DME, will predict to statistical significance the variance in job insecurity, as reported in the MSQ.

Null Hypothesis 2 (H$_{0-2}$). None of the six facets of Conscientiousness, as measured by the NEO-PI-3, will predict the variance in job insecurity, as reported in the MSQ.

Alternative Hypothesis 2 (H$_{1-2}$). At least one of the six facets of Conscientiousness, as measured by the NEO-PI-3, will predict the variance in job insecurity, as reported in the MSQ.

Null Hypothesis 3 (H$_{0-3}$). None of the six facets of Neuroticism, as measured by the NEO-PI-3, will predict the variance in job insecurity, as reported in the MSQ.

Alternative Hypothesis 3 (H$_{1-3}$). At least one of the six facets of Neuroticism, with N1: Anxiety being the most likely, as measured by the NEO-PI-3, will predict the variance in job insecurity, as reported in the MSQ.

Research Question 2

Do any of the five dispositions of employability, as measured by the DME, or six facets of either Conscientiousness or Neuroticism, as measured by the NEO-PI-3, explain the variance in perceived job satisfaction, as measured by the MSQ in full-time employees of companies/organizations with more than 500 employees?

Null Hypothesis 4 (H$_{0-4}$). None of the five dispositions of employability, as measured by the DME, will predict the variance in job satisfaction, as reported in the MSQ.

Alternative Hypothesis 4 (H$_{1-4}$). At least one of the five dispositions of employability, as measured by the DME, will predict the variance in job satisfaction, as reported in the MSQ.

Null Hypothesis 5 (H$_{0-5}$). None of the six facets of Conscientiousness, as measured by the NEO-PI-3, will predict the variance in job satisfaction, as reported in the MSQ.

Alternative Hypothesis 5 (H$_{1-5}$). At least one of the six facets of Conscientiousness, as measured by the NEO-PI-3, will predict the variance in job satisfaction, as reported in the MSQ.

Null Hypothesis 6 (H$_{0-6}$). None of the six facets of Neuroticism, as measured by the NEO-PI-3, will predict the variance in job satisfaction, as reported in the MSQ.

Alternative Hypothesis 6 (H$_{1-6}$). At least one of the six facets of Neuroticism, as measured by the NEO-PI-3, will predict the variance in job satisfaction, as reported in the MSQ.

Research Question 3

Do any of the five dispositions of employability, as measured by the DME, have a statistically significant relationship with any of the six facets of either Conscientiousness or Neuroticism, as measured by the NEO-PI-3, in full-time employees of companies/organizations with more than 500 employees?

Null Hypothesis 7 (H$_{0-7}$). None of the five dispositions of employability, as measured by the DME, will show a significant relationship to any of the six personality facets of Conscientiousness, as measured by the NEO-PI-3.

Alternative Hypothesis 7 (H$_{1-7}$). At least one of the dispositions of employability, as measured by the DME, will show a significant positive relationship to at least one of the six facets of Conscientiousness, as measured by the NEO-PI-3.

Null Hypothesis 8 (H$_{0-8}$). None of the five dispositions of employability, as measured by the DME, will show a significant relationship to any of the six personality facets of Neuroticism, as measured by the NEO-PI-3.

Alternative Hypothesis 8 (H$_{1-8}$). At least one of the dispositions of employability, as measured by the DME, will show a significant negative relationship to at least one of the six facets of Neuroticism, as measured by the NEO-PI-3.

<div align="center">

Assumptions

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While control of relevant variables was attempted in this research, certain assumptions were made. Many studies have addressed the connection of external

variables to job insecurity such as layoffs (Probst, 2002) and coworker negativity (Morewedge, 2009). This study was founded on the premise that internal attributes are significant variables. I also assumed that the assessments chosen accurately reflected the characteristics to be measured. This assumption is considered acceptable, as evidenced by the reliability and validity of each measurement indicated in Chapter 3.

The participants in this study were presumed to provide results that can be generalized to a greater population of full-time employees. Although the sample was limited in type of professionals, I adhered to the principle that the internal attributes that mitigate job insecurity in the professions of the participants would do so in other professions as well. The participants of this study were expected to comply with the process of this study and complete all required assessments. An assumption was made within this study that the participants who volunteered answered honestly and insightfully regarding their personality and employability dispositions as well as their current level of satisfaction.

Limitations

First, this study was limited by accessibility of participants. The sample was selected from full-time employees who were voluntarily willing to participate in this study. Therefore, participation in this study was based on availability rather than random or stratified selection. However, the sample was not merely one of convenience, but rather was a purposive sample drawn by selecting employees of large companies, which have both a higher risk of layoffs and subcultures affecting job satisfaction (Natarajan & Nagar, 2011). Based on the services and products provided by the companies, the participants were also limited by type of employment position (i.e., engineers, higher

education faculty). This may have limited the variability of personality or employability dispositions.

Second, the results of this study were limited to the self-report responses of the participants. This required the participants to be genuine and insightful concerning their behaviors and feelings. Thus, outcomes were subject to the participants' honesty and self-perception.

Third, the variables of this study were limited to the measurements used. Some measurements of satisfaction further identify subcategories of intrinsic or extrinsic satisfaction. Only the overall level of satisfaction (rather than multidimensional scales) was looked at in this study. Other instruments also identify a greater number of personality or employability variables. However, I focused on limited variables of personality and employability based on the theoretical frameworks. These particular variables and assessment tools that measure them were selected because of their universality and applicability. Researchers in future studies might consider breaking these variables down further. They might also apply the results of this study to other settings of employment.

Lastly, the practical application of the findings of this study may be limited. History has revealed a tension between researchers and businesses, as researchers attempt to construe theoretical concepts, whereas companies seek to use the results of research for applicable benefit (Zickar, 2012). The outcomes of this study are discussed in regard to possible implications for social change. However, methods for implementing any potential conclusions are only suggested, and future research on applying the results will be required.

Significance of the Study and Social Change Implications

Regardless of the assumptions and limitations of this study, the nature and purpose of it indicate significant social implications. As layoffs increase and employees of large businesses feel impersonalized, job insecurity escalates (Brockner, 2004). This study could improve organizational leaders' awareness of how perceived insecurity affects job satisfaction. Because satisfaction is known to be connected to intention to leave and absenteeism (McFarlane, Thornton, & Newton, 1989; Staufenbiel & Konig, 2010), businesses could prevent turnover and loss of productivity. Additionally, perceived job insecurity is found to negatively impact an employee's emotional and physical well-being (Meltzer et al., 2010; Schreurs et al., 2010). Therefore, the profitability of businesses and the quality of life for their employees is decreased by escalating job insecurity.

Dispositional attributes that would potentially maintain the relational harmony between an employer and its employees, thereby mitigating the negative effects of discorrespondence, were examined here. This might allow for continued success of the company while protecting the well-being of the workers. This, in turn, may positively impact effort and expenses lost by both the employer and employee on healthcare, absenteeism, and poor quality performance (Staufenbiel & Konig, 2010). Finally, the current economic recession has led to government involvement to both protect employees and provide assistance for the struggling economy (Ogbolu & Singh, 2012). However, as more laws are implemented and more restrictions are placed upon businesses, capitalist enterprises will seek new avenues, both cooperatively and adversely, to retain profits and increase productivity (Beardsley, Enriquez, & Nuttall, 2009). Businesses are likely to

move toward a competitive model and a contractual style of employment to counter

government involvement, which is already being implemented in European countries

(Altuzarra & Serrano, 2010). Individuals will need to develop protective traits to

compensate for these changes in business practices (Roskies, Louis-Guerin, & Fournier,

1993). Resilience factors that might enable employees to build self-confidence and better

cope with job insecurity were revealed in this study. As indicated, this is likely to prove

beneficial to both the individual workers and the companies.

Summary and Transition

Current economic turmoil results in perceived job insecurity among employees of

large companies (Meltzer et al., 2010). This is especially detrimental due to the

significance work has in an individual's identity. The stress that results from perceived

job insecurity affects both job satisfaction and performance (Bono & Judge, 2003; Reisel

et al., 2007). Perceived job insecurity is also shown to be related to poor physical and

emotional well-being in the employee (Furnham & Schaeffer, 1984; Meltzer et al., 2010)

and high turnover rate and absenteeism within the company (Staufenbiel & Konig, 2010).

These negative effects demand research to identify potential aspects that can help to

mitigate these problems. Personality traits (Naswall et al., 2005; Roskies et al., 1993)

and employability (Silla et al., 2009; Wittekind et al., 2010) are known factors in

improving aspects of job satisfaction and might mitigate perceived job insecurity.

Chapter 1 provided a historical backdrop to the theoretical frameworks of this

study. The theories of TWA, PEC, the five factor model of personality, and dispositional

employability were discussed in detail as a foundational basis for the nature and purpose

of this study. The chapter concluded with how application of these theories is relevant to modern business practice and positive social change.

Chapter 2 reviews the literature associated with the themes of this study. Job insecurity, as a prominent social problem due to economic instability, is defined and its effects appraised based on current research. Additional information is provided on key themes of the study including satisfaction, personality, employability, and employer/employee relationships. Potential modifiers of job insecurity, as evidenced by past research, provide suggestions and directions for the current study. A review of the literature shows the use of both personality traits and dispositions of employability as coping mechanisms for other problems recognized in the workplace. Finally, the chapter concludes with a discussion on the research gap to be addressed.

Chapter 3 reviews the methodology and research design of this study. Research questions are outlined and hypotheses are proposed based on the review of literature from Chapter 2. The population, sampling size, and sample type are described, along with the rationale for obtaining participants. Each assessment measurement is identified and described by functionality, reliability, and validity. The process of administering the instruments and obtaining data is also outlined. Additionally, ethical considerations are addressed. Then, a rationale for using multiple regression analysis and a correlation matrix for analyzing the results regarding perceived job insecurity in companies of more than 500 employees is provided.

Chapter 4 contains the results obtained from the data collected. The research questions are answered, and conclusions are drawn based on the multiple regression

analyses computed. Lastly, Chapter 5 contains a summary of the results, a discussion of

social change implications, recommendations, and the conclusion of the study.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

The present study involved a review of concepts of modern workplace perceptions and how they are influenced by personal attributes. The workplace perceptions included job insecurity and job satisfaction. The personal attributes that were expected to influence these perceptions were facets of the personality traits Conscientiousness and Neuroticism, as well as five dispositions of employability: openness to change at work, work and career resilience, work and career proactivity, career motivation, and work identity. Past research elucidated the significance of these variables for additional research and provided a rationale for the current study.

Job Insecurity

Job insecurity is a state of perception rather than an actual state of being. Sverke, Hellgren, and Naswall (2002) distinguished between the two by labeling job loss as "immediate" and job insecurity as an "experience involving prolonged uncertainty about the future" (p. 243). Stiglbauer, Selenko, Batinic, and Jodlbauer (2012) defined job insecurity as "a situation which is characterized by a threat to employment, uncontrollability (the feeling of powerlessness), and unpredictability" (p. 355). Other definitions include concepts of "potential involuntary job loss" (De Cuyper et al., 2008, p. 492), "a global phenomenon" (Konig, Probst, Staffen, & Graso, 2011, p. 142), "interpretation of his or her immediate work environment" (Loi et al., 2012, p. 362), and "subjectively perceived likelihood" (Sverke et al., 2002, p. 243). These pieces create a general conceptualization of job insecurity, which can be defined as a universal threat to the perception of maintaining one's job and the needs it provides, including uncertainty

about the ability to change the outcome. The complexity of perceived job insecurity

lends to extensive research on the topic. However, most of the research can be divided

into two categories: research that identifies consequences and research that identifies

potential moderators.

Consequences

Job insecurity is often preceded by observable factors. Primary antecedents are

economic uncertainty, job layoffs, role overload, and reduced organization support

(Blackmore & Kuntz, 2011; Daniels, Tregaskis, & Seaton, 2007; Van Dam, 2004).

When these are identified, consequences are likely to ensue. The presumed intention of

acknowledging the antecedents is to establish preventative measures. Notice of job

insecurity antecedents can assist employers in recognizing those who will likely suffer

more ill effects of job insecurity as well as when job insecurity is becoming a problem

within their organization. Unfortunately, these are predicted outcomes of the current

world job market and results of the need for organizations to restructure and compete.

Consequently, job insecurity will probably be an ongoing problem, and organizations will

likely have marginal success in preventing it (Probst, 2005). Thus, the importance of

recognizing antecedents is that this makes it possible to prepare for the consequences that

are likely to follow. The consequences of job insecurity are detrimental to both the

individual and the organization. Much research has been conducted on the consequences

of job insecurity with short-term effects on job satisfaction and organizational

commitment and long-term effects on well-being and job performance (Sverke et al.,

2002). Job satisfaction has been known to directly relate to these other three

consequences of job insecurity. First, as employees suffer from job dissatisfaction during

times of job insecurity, they also decrease in engagement with their jobs (De Cuyper et al., 2008) and in organizational commitment (Reisel, Probst, Swee-Lim, Maloles, & Konig, 2010). One suggested cause for this occurrence is that employees feel betrayed by the organization during impending changes and perceive this as injustice (Francis & Barling, 2005). Thus, organizational attitudes are strongly predicted by job satisfaction (Mahanta, 2012; Munir et al., 2013). Second, well-being involves overall health and is defined as a person's energy, commitment, and absorption (De Cuyper et al., 2008). When employees' mental and/or physical well-being becomes endangered, they require time to recover; in this situation, fear of taking time off can result in higher job strain and dissatisfaction (Strazdins, D'Souza, Lim, Broom, & Rodgers, 2004). The connection between employee well-being and job satisfaction, therefore, is well established by past research (Silla et al., 2009; Taris & Schreurs, 2009; Wright, Cropanzano, & Bonett, 2007). Third, job performance, which includes organizational cooperativeness, general productivity, and personal adjustment, is negatively related to job insecurity and strongly correlated to job satisfaction (Edwards et al., 2008; Gregory, Albritton, & Osmonbekov, 2010). Therefore, determining personal attributes that improve job satisfaction was expected to predict positive outcomes on the variables of insecurity and performance as well. Therefore, while the consequences of perceived job insecurity are extensive, most show a relationship with job satisfaction, which was the focus in this study.

Job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is an idealization that an individual can be gratified by a working environment. Job satisfaction has been defined as "an evaluative judgment about the degree of pleasure an employee derives from his or her job" (Edwards et al., 2008). What brings a person satisfaction within the workplace is

multidimensional and dependent on employee variables (Dawis et al., 1968; Natarajan & Nagar, 2011). However, according to TWA, job satisfaction is important to correspondence between an employee and employer, and anything that may disrupt job satisfaction is detrimental to that relationship (Renfro-Michel, Burlew, & Robert, 2009). Perceived job insecurity consistently has a negative relationship to job satisfaction (Cheng & Chan, 2008; De Cuyper et al., 2009; Guo-Hua, Lee, Ashford, Zhenxiong, & Xiaopeng, 2010; Naswall et al., 2005; Sora, Caballer, Peiro, & de Witte, 2009). Additionally, job dissatisfaction is often an initial reaction within the individual to job insecurity (Sverke et al., 2002). Because an individual's work is typically essential to identity formation, dissatisfaction with one's job seeps into general life dissatisfaction (DeCuyper et al., 2008). This finding heightens the significance job insecurity has in job satisfaction. Job dissatisfaction also tends to result in additional psychological strain and job-induced tension (Naswall et al., 2005). Job performance and company productivity decrease as well (Edwards et al., 2008; Greguras & Diefendorff, 2009; Reisel et al., 2007). Furthermore, individuals with lower job satisfaction are more prone to accepting counterfactual beliefs, suggesting less resilience to rumor of job insecurity (Dong, Mitchell, Lee, Holtom, & Hinkin, 2012). This domino effect of job insecurity on job satisfaction, especially when experienced over an extended period of time, leads to long-term negative consequences on the individual and the company. However, job satisfaction has also been shown to moderate these negative effects of perceived job insecurity (Chirumbolo & Hellgren, 2003). Also, personality and aspects of employment are thought to potentially affect negative consequences on job satisfaction, turnover intention, and organizational commitment (Bipp, 2010; Bono & Judge, 2003). Therefore,

identifying potential personal attributes that tend to increase job satisfaction can have significant implications for improving many aspects of the workplace during these strained economic times.

Job satisfaction can be distinguished by need requirements. Employees prioritize various values that are experientially significant to them (Dawis et al., 1968). Increased job status and compensation, though, do not necessarily indicate greater job satisfaction (Feather & Rauter, 2004; Irving & Montes, 2009). However, identifying specific need requirements associated with personal attributes extends beyond the scope of this study. Still, identifying personal attributes that relate to overall job satisfaction might provide further clarification on reducing negative consequences within the workplace. Many characteristics such as competence and ambition (Ayan & Kocacik, 2010), autonomy (Baard, Deci, & Ryan, 2004), motivation (Dartey-Baah, 2010), and self-determination and impact (Gregory et al., 2010) have already been shown to influence job satisfaction. Such characteristics are descriptive of particular personality traits and employability aspects, suggesting that relationships should be found between these variables and job satisfaction.

Job satisfaction has been measured in studies by innumerable methods. Staying consistent with TWA, the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) developed by the original theorists (Weiss, Dawis, England, & Lofquist, 1967) was used in this study. The MSQ provided not only an overall measurement of job satisfaction, but also a measurement rating of job security. Over the past decades, the MSQ has been used repeatedly due to its high reliability and validity, showing relevance across cultural, occupational, and other demographic variables (Buitendach & Rothmann, 2009; Frye,

2012; Xiao-Dong, Jian An, & Xiao-Yan, 2013). The MSQ is further discussed in

Chapter 3. Assessment of overall job satisfaction was expected to predict personal

attributes that might moderate the negative effects of job insecurity.

Moderators

The study of job insecurity has been a progression of understanding. The initial

function of research was to define and identify its potential symptoms and then effects

(Sverke et al., 2002). Modern research focusing on perceived job insecurity emphasizes

methods of alleviating it. Research has already identified many variables, both external

and internal, that result in a positive change of perception regarding one's job. Some of

the external variables include type of measurement used in assessing job insecurity,

social support, and social protection; while demographics, coping style, and affective

dispositions are internal moderators (Sverke et al., 2002). The different moderating

influences have unique implications concerning the negative consequences of job

insecurity.

External moderators. The assessment tool used to measure job insecurity may

not directly change the consequences of job insecurity, but it influences the outcomes

published in literature. In a meta-analysis of job insecurity, Severke et al. (2002) found

that over a third of the studies reviewed in the previous two decades used single item

measurements. They also concluded that while single item measurements could be

acceptable, multiple indicator scales were preferable due to higher reliability and content

validity as well as better analysis of internal consistency and variance. Therefore, a

multiple item assessment tool was used in this study.

Additionally, social support by the organization has been found to be important in mitigating job insecurity (Armstrong-Stassen, 2004; Blackmore & Kuntz, 2011). Thus, employees are more likely to support the goals of the company when they perceive their needs as important to the company. Companies can improve their support system by recognizing the individual characteristics that aid in meeting these needs and increase perceived job security.

In contrast to social support, *social protection* refers to external assistance, typically by the government, which moderates job insecurity. Demands for governmental social protection have increased with the changes in the global economy (Anderson & Pontusson, 2007). Evidence confirms that countries with better safety nets have lower reported job insecurity and higher job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Debus, Probst, König, & Kleinmann, 2012). The controversy in the United States regarding social protection surrounds the mentality of organizational autonomy that has both separated the United States from other countries and enabled this country to be highly competitive in the marketplace (Debus et al., 2012). The demand for public policy that protects individuals' livelihood is counterweighted by the apprehension of subverting capitalism. For this reasons, Anderson and Pontusson (2007) suggested that government focus on employability and maintenance of unemployment benefits while minimizing legislature that restricts freedom. The growing concern, then, in America is how organizations and individuals can protect themselves while minimizing the need for governmental social protection.

Internal moderators. Employees use various coping techniques to ward off the negative effects of workplace stress. However, some of these coping styles are more

effective than others, and some actually increase the risk. Cognitive appraisal theory indicates that the primary appraisal of stress first determines a potential threat (i.e., job insecurity probability), and then secondary appraisal occurs when resources are assessed to determine coping ability (i.e., job insecurity importance; Anderson & Pontusson, 2007). An individual is more likely to avoid or deny a threat when adequate resources are not perceived, while positive secondary appraisal results in perception of control. This suggests that resources are necessary prior to facing a perceived threat as a challenge. Both affective and cognitive dispositions, reflected in traits of personality, have a role in this appraisal, as does an individual's perception of employability (Anderson & Pontusson, 2007). Therefore, these internal variables are likely significant factors in moderating perceived job insecurity and were the focus of this study.

Alongside coping styles, affective well-being is shown to mitigate turnover intention caused by long-term job insecurity (Stiglbauer, et al., 2012). Conversely, emotional instability is related to greater job insecurity (Blackmore & Kuntz, 2011). Burgard, Brand, and House (2009) propose that this correlation might be exacerbated by the tendency of individuals with high Neuroticism toward negative reporting style on self-surveys. This suggests taking a deeper look into the personality trait of Neuroticism, to establish what facets of it might be more responsible for these effects. The facets of Neuroticism that may be significant are later discussed.

Furthermore, negative effects of job insecurity are moderated by cognitive dispositions such as a mentality that strife is a challenge versus a hindrance (Staufenbiel & Konig, 2010). Employees who exhibit psychological hardiness hold the perception of job insecurity as a challenge rather than a threat (De Cuyper et al., 2008). This suggests

that those who face difficult situations as a challenge tend to focus on a solution and implement the resources known to moderate the potential problem (i.e., job insecurity). Psychological hardiness involves several aspects in addition to solution-focused orientation, including optimism, emotional regulation, internal locus of control, and self-efficacy (Bono & Judge, 2003; Park, Monnot, Jacob, & Wagner, 2011). Each of these factors enables an employee to better cope with the potential consequences of job insecurity. Optimism and emotional regulation were previously discussed in affective dispositions. Locus of control and self-efficacy, though, are cognitive dispositions. *Internal locus of control* can be defined as the cognitive tendency of an individual to have control over the environment, while *external locus of control* is the tendency to perceive oneself as a victim of the circumstances (Strauser, Ketz, & Keim, 2002). Self-efficacy follows as the belief that one has the ability to effect a desired change in the environment (Bandura, 1986). External locus of control magnifies the negative effects of job insecurity, whereas internal locus of control minimizes them (Naswall et al., 2005). Self-efficacy is evidenced in individuals who hold an internal locus of control (Strauser et al., 2002). Additionally, self-efficacy has been shown to reduce effects of job insecurity and improve job satisfaction (Bono & Judge, 2003; Schreurs et al., 2010).

These cognitive dispositions have been analyzed with both dispositions of employability and personality traits. Strong relationships have been shown to exist with several dispositions of employability, suggesting that these dispositions should also affect job insecurity and satisfaction (Fugate & Kinicki, 2008). Bono and Judge (2003) also found that the strongest correlations between these cognitive dispositions and personality traits were with Conscientiousness and Neuroticism. Other research supports that

Conscientiousness and Neuroticism are the most likely predictors of job insecurity and satisfaction (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Bipp, 2010; Bozionelos, 2004; Zhai, Willis, O'Shea, Zhai, & Yang, 2012). Further research is required, though, regarding which dispositions of employability and facets of these personality traits might mitigate the effects of job insecurity. Breaking down these variables can provide more specific information for coping with the problem. Therefore, dispositions of employability and the personality facets of Conscientiousness and Neuroticism were emphasized in this study as the most likely factors for enabling coping skills. Before looking at these individually, however, reviewing a working theoretical framework on which to base this research is necessary.

Theory of Work Adjustment and Person-Environment Correspondence

De Cuyper, Bernhard-Oettel, Berntson, De Witte, and Alarco (2008) suggested that recent changes in the economy have resulted in a change of employee perception regarding the role of their organization from being "paternal" to being a "partnership." This has likely occurred in response to a modern career model wherein employees will typically not have a lifelong commitment to one company, but rather be required to produce continual proof of their value to multiple companies (Savickas, 2012). However, early theories of work adjustment emphasized a mutually satisfying work relationship over half a century ago (Dawis et al., 1968). Person-environment (P-E) fit has been the goal of career development for decades, including work done by Franks, Super, Bandura, and Holland, prominent theorists in vocational psychology. These perspectives, however, predominantly focus on developing career identity and career procurement, while TWA and PEC propose working relationships that enable good fit

once a job has been obtained (Renfro-Michel et al., 2009). Tenure is evidence of lasting

correspondence as a result of good P-E fit (Bretz & Judge, 1994). P-E fit in the TWA

model occurs when the employee's abilities meet the company's demands and the

company's reinforcers meet the employee's needs (Greguras & Diefendorff, 2009). The

problem for the current labor force is the reduction in reinforcers and the increase in

demands that require employees to adjust. However, organizational leaders should

recognize that the best reinforcers are not monetary. Research has shown that

compensation that exceeds expectations has a negative association with job satisfaction

(Irving & Montes, 2009). Contrarily, employees who are supported are more satisfied

than employees who are not (Melchiori & Church, 1997). Therefore, recognition of what

values are important to employees can better improve satisfaction outcomes. Still, in

today's market, employees are required to make more adjustments. A person's

adjustment tendencies involve factors of activeness, reactiveness, tolerance, and

perseverance (Dawis, 2000). This suggests that employees engage in adjustment styles

but eventually need satisfaction in order to remain in their position.

Job insecurity was a threat to correspondence and tenure since both tolerance and

perseverance decreased (Lyons & O'Brien, 2006). Hankins (2012) supported TWA by

distinguishing between P-E fit and P-E interaction, asserting that the initial increases the

latter and thus improves chances of tenure. P-E fit also predicted job satisfaction and job

performance and was shown as an indicator of appropriate correspondence (Feij, Van Der

Velde, Taris, & Taris, 1999). Specifically, when a person's values were consistent with

the organization's values, job satisfaction increased (Gregory et al., 2010). The current

labor market competitiveness provides companies the upper hand; they can have lower

tolerance and perseverance while employees are required to adapt (Hankins, 2012).

Individuals will have the duty of seeking P-E fit. Since change within the environment is

less probable and companies are declining in tolerance and perseverance, correspondence

will more likely occur when the individual's adjustment is reactive, tolerant, and flexible.

This suggests that those with personality traits and employability dispositions that

enhance these components of work adjustment will more likely maintain their positions

and have higher job satisfaction and performance. Both personality traits and

employability are suggested as topics of future research regarding adjustment to work

discorrespondence (Renfro-Michel et al., 2009; Savickas, 2012; Tinsley, 1993).

Therefore, exploring unique internal attributes of personality and employability was

logical for identifying relationships of job security and satisfaction.

Employability

Employability has become a primary emphasis of recent job insecurity literature.

Employability has been described as an individual's use of knowledge, skills,

understanding of the labor market, and adaptability to procure another job (De Cuyper et

al., 2008). Perceptions of employability were affected by an individual's analysis of the

governmental policies to reduce unemployment, the organization's ambition for

flexibility and competitiveness, and his or her own abilities and skills to access

prospective job opportunities (Berntson & Marklund, 2007). While employability

perceptions are affected by these three aspects, an employee only has control over the

factors that specifically influence self-perceptions. So, to increase perceived

employability, a person should engage in activities that enhance personal qualifications.

Today's market mandates the need for workers to continuously learn as a means of

remaining employable (De Cuyper et al., 2008; Wille et al., 2013). Wille et al. (2013) also suggested that employability influences individuals' intrinsic beliefs of their career success. As a personal resource, employability is considered to have a two-fold protection in an insecure economy: (a) provide resilience of losing one's employment assets and (b) enable adaptability within the workforce (De Cuyper et al., 2012). Therefore, employability has an impact on both internal and external needs as well as on both short-term and long-term consequences.

Employability has shown to have positive relationships to job satisfaction, life satisfaction, organizational commitment, engagement, employee well-being, and job performance (Berntson et al., 2010; De Cuyper et al., 2008). Some have argued that employability does not have direct relationships to well-being, but rather is a moderator of the negative effects of job insecurity, although perhaps not on all effects (Silla et al., 2009). This has been explained by some who assert employability's tendency to reduce negative feelings instead of instilling positive ones (De Cuyper et al., 2008). An example would be that employability has been evidenced to directly enable employees to cope more effectively with job insecurity (Fugate, Kinicki, & Ashforth, 2004). A strong negative relationship between job insecurity and employability has been clearly established (Berntson et al., 2010; Blackmore & Kuntz, 2011; DeCuyper et al., 2008; Wittekind et al., 2010).

However, when highly qualified employees perceive economic turbulence in a company, they are typically the first to voluntarily leave their position (Sverke et al., 2002). Not only does turnover intention increase, the highly employable person ceases engagement in effecting company policy or showing loyalty, which intensifies as job

insecurity rises (Berntson et al., 2010). This can possibly be explained by the ease with which they can obtain another job, but is detrimental to the organization looking to keep their best employees. Research has supported an employee's tendency to ensure personal well-being over that of the company's collective whole (Berntson et al., 2010). Highly employable persons are predicted to hold positions of greater security in future economic turbulence (DeCuyper et al., 2008). But they are also known to have a higher turnover intention and lower tenure rates (Blackmore & Kuntz, 2011). Therefore, organizations should seek ways to minimize perceived job insecurity, avoiding the loss of valuable employees and productivity. Likewise, employees should improve their employability to secure their job and moderate the negative effects of job insecurity.

Job insecurity seems to be strongest among employees with a high awareness of economic instability in the workplace, but low perceived employability (De Cuyper et al., 2008). Technology and the current labor market have widened the gap between high level and low level employees, making employees with limited skills even less employable (Hankins, 2012). Yet these are the employees least likely to seek opportunities outside their company that advance their skills and capabilities, creating greater segregation (Forrier & Sets, 2003). Negative effects of poor skills and lack of perceived employability also extended to the employees' occupational health and ability to cope with job stress (Du Cuyper et al., 2012). Additionally, high perceived employability lost effectiveness of minimizing negative effects of job insecurity in both older and more tenured populations (Van Dam, 2004; Wittekind et al., 2010). High perceived employability also did not improve emotional well-being while an individual looked for a new job, but reduced negative emotions during employment when perceived

insecurity was high (De Battisti et al., 2011). Thus, increasing the perceptions of employability should decrease perceived job insecurity; however, variables of employability must be identified to predict and replicate this effect.

Dispositional Employability

Many current studies on job insecurity suggest future research on individual characteristics that buffer economic turbulence and improve employability (Bipp, 2010; Schreurs et al., 2010; Sverke et al., 2002; Wittekind et al., 2010). As mentioned earlier, external variables, such as organizational support and social protection, mediate the effects of job insecurity. However, these have also been shown to decrease employability orientation, although some of these factors can also mediate the relationships between personality traits and perceived employability (Van Dam, 2004). This suggests that the external variables can potentially result in false security, while not providing the necessary resources for coping with potential unemployment. From this perspective, internal attributes should be evaluated for not only improving work related variables such as security and satisfaction, but also for increasing the likelihood of reemployment success. Identifying specific dispositions of employability defines the characteristics that enable an individual to be adaptable (De Battisti et al., 2011). Considerable research shows that employability is measured by perceptions of skills, education, and competence, but little research discusses what individual attributes might enhance these characteristics (Wittekind et al., 2010). Identification of these aspects can potentially provide recommendations to both organizations and employees.

Fugate and Kinicki (2008) proposed five dispositions of employability: (a) openness to change at work, (b) work and career resilience, (c) work and career

proactivity, (d) career motivation, and (e) work identity. Based on Fugate and Kinicki's

theory, dispositional employability has been validated as a multidimensional construct.

Also, these dispositions have been confirmed as directly related to perceived

employability (DeBattisti et al., 2011). These dispositions have been supported in

additional studies. McArdle, Waters, Briscoe, & Hall (2007) supported an earlier version

of the theory, confirming dispositional employability as a psycho-social construct

regardless of current employment status. They also identified improved self-esteem and

more in-depth job searches in highly employable individuals. De Cuyper et al. (2012)

found that comparing Fugate's employability dispositions to aspects of self-esteem,

burnout, and personal accomplishment identified more specific relationships that were

not apparent in comparisons with overall employability. These dispositions did not

necessarily predict relocation, but reduced the physical and mental duress experienced

during employment uncertainty (De Battisti et al., 2011). Lastly, these dispositions have

been supported as a means of increasing competitiveness in the workplace, essential to

maintaining employment (Bangerter et al., 2012). However, to better understand how

these dispositions might affect job insecurity and satisfaction, they must be evaluated

individually.

Openness to change at work. Openness to change at work is described as an

individual's tendency to be flexible when presented with unique challenges, seeing

adversity as opportunities to learn and potentially improve the workplace environment

(Fugate & Kinicki, 2008). Those with higher perceived employability typically are active

in learning new skills and seeking prospective employment activities (Van Dam, 2004).

Therefore, since both the big five personality trait of Openness to Experience and

employability are evidenced as decreasing job insecurity (Blackmore and Kuntz, 2011; De Cuyper et al., 2008), a strong argument can be made that openness to change at work is a dispositional attribute of employability that directly influences the effects of job insecurity. Therefore, a confirmation that openness to change at work would be negatively related to perceived job insecurity was expected.

Other research shows that those high in openness to change at work reacted favorably to actual or perspective changes that are typically associated with job insecurity (Van Dam et al., 2008). Those individuals with low openness to change at work experienced more negative emotions, intention to quit, and decreased job satisfaction (Wanberg & Banas, 2000). This suggests that those with openness to change at work would maintain positive emotions at work and have a positive relationship to job satisfaction. However, TWA asserts that job satisfaction is reflected in tenure due to an employee perceiving consistent correspondence over time (Dawis et al., 1968). Resistance to change was positively related to tenure (Van Dam et al., 2008). Yet tenured employees have greater job satisfaction (Natarajan & Nagar, 2011). Therefore, openness to change at work might have a positive relationship to job satisfaction, but only when moderated by tenure.

Work and career resilience. Work and career resilience has been associated with personal characteristics such as optimism, high self-evaluations, confidence, and persistence when challenged (Fugate and Kinicki, 2008). These internal attributes could arguably be reflective of positive core self-evaluations: high self-esteem, high self-efficacy, low Neuroticism and internal locus of control. Core self-evaluations involved self-perceptions of the individual, such as being competent, emotionally regulated, and

worthy (Bono & Judge, 2003). Core self-evaluations (CSE) also included internal locus of control and a belief that one can change undesirable circumstances (Bono & Judge, 2003). Individually, these core self-evaluations have been identified as decreasing negative emotions associated with change and increasing resilience to work place change (Barrick et al., 2013; Naswall et al., 2005; Schreurs et al., 2010). Specifically, self-esteem and self-efficacy have been supported as an aspect of perceived employability (De Cuyper et al., 2012; Strauser, Ketz, & Keim, 2002). High self-esteem increased P-E fit (Roberts & Robins, 2004) and was positively related to higher status responsibilities (Neustadt et al., 2006). All of these resiliency traits, though, were shown to emphasize solution-focused resolving of problems that are essential for becoming reemployed (McArdle et al., 2007). Additionally, highly resilient employees tended to express a greater acceptance of change (Wanberg & Banas, 2000). Thus, work and career resilience is expected to have a direct negative relationship with perceived job insecurity by increasing perceptions of control.

Negative effects on satisfaction were then moderated when resiliency traits increase perceived control (Brockner et al., 2004). Individuals reporting high resiliency traits were also more tolerant to needs not being met (Park et al., 2011). They show greater tolerance before becoming dissatisfied. Also, the resiliency traits described by CSE showed to improve vocational identity achievement, which was associated with life satisfaction (Hirschi, 2011). Then, accomplishment, positive emotions, and social relations also improved when resilient traits such as self-esteem and self-efficacy were present (De Cuyper, et al., 2012). Thus, work and career resilience was expected to

moderate the relationship between job insecurity and general job satisfaction. Potential

relationships to personality traits are also considered later when they are discussed.

Work and career proactivity. Fugate and Kinicki (2008) claimed that work and

career proactivity involves a general preparation for keeping options open for any

potential scenario. Fugate et al. (2004) initially described adaptability as an

employability disposition, with proactivity as a characteristic of adaptability. However,

Fugate and Kinicki (2008) separated adaptability into multiple dispositions. This is

supported by research that identified adaptability as a multidimensional construct (Griffin

& Hesketh, 2003). Work and career proactivity suggests individuals are active in

acquiring information about their environment and career options should a pending

change be eminent. Initiative to search for options has been linked to a willingness to

accept other work activities, rather than being resistant to potential change (Van Dam,

2004). Proactivity emphasized solution focused behavior that enabled a person to

effectively cope with stress (Griffin & Hesketh, 2003). Proactive behavior also utilized

internal locus of control and self-efficacy to face challenges (McArdle et al., 2007).

Since individuals with high work and career proactivity tend to take more initiative in job

searches and identifying multiple opportunities, they are less likely to experience

perceived job insecurity.

Proactivity described characteristics of independence and autonomy so that

people who take initiative typically are self-motivated. Unsurprisingly, people high in

proactivity were often in leadership positions, creating challenging goals and thriving in

the process of achieving them (Crossley, Cooper, & Wernsing, 2013). They exhibited

shared organizational values and have high impact status in their companies (Gregory et

al., 2010). This might suggest that proactive individuals feel responsible for their own satisfaction and seek excellence. Research consistently demonstrates that work and career proactivity was positively related to job satisfaction (Fuller et al., 2010; Gregory et al., 2010; Li et al., 2010; Thompson, 2005). This leads to a strong assumption that work and career proactivity would mitigate effects of job insecurity on general job satisfaction.

Career Motivation. Career motivation describes an individual who is goal-oriented, persistent toward a purpose, and motivated by challenges (Fugate & Kinicki, 2008). This disposition was similar to work involvement, a notion that one's career is a priority (Bozionelos, 2004). Future planning was often carefully considered and typically resulted in perpetual learning of new skills (Fugate & Kinicki, 2008). So not surprisingly, persistence was positively related to educational level (Strauser et al., 2002). While education did not predict employability (McArdle et al., 2007), it did predict status and compensation returns (Colclough, Kingdon, & Patrinos, 2010). Those with higher status and compensation experienced less work related stress during uncertainty, presumably because they have more resources on which to fall back (Feijoo, 2004). This would suggest a negative relationship with job insecurity. However, career motivation was associated with work effort, which showed an inverted U relationship with job insecurity (Brockner, Grover, Reed, & Lee Dewitt, 1992). This might be partially explained by the tendency of highly motivated individuals to place excessive significance on their jobs. Still, career motivation was also related to engagement, which showed a negative relationship to job insecurity. Since career motivation involved more than effort and other characteristics were negatively associated with job insecurity, career motivation was expected to have a negative relationship with perceived job insecurity as well.

Career motivation mitigated effects of perceived lack of control and improved job satisfaction during these times (Orpen, 1994). Ambition, as a characteristic of career motivation, was known to improve job satisfaction (Ayan & Kocacik, 2010). Then, Dartey-Baah (2010) supported the idea that career motivation has a strong relationship to job satisfaction using multiple theoretical perspectives. Thus, career motivation was thought to likely mediate the negative effects of job insecurity on general job satisfaction.

Work Identity. Work identity is defined by the individual as he or she assumes specific roles in the workplace. It encompasses career ambition, personal meaning, and individual priorities (McArdle, et al., 2007). Fugate and Kinicki (2008) asserted that "career identities direct, regulate, and sustain behavior" (p. 508). The more a career identity is defined, the more likely an individual knows his or her purpose, direction, and abilities. Self-knowledge was related to P-E fit (Savickas, 2012). Fugate and Kinicki (2008) also suggested that a person's career identity enhances both personal worth and awareness of limitless opportunities. Defining one's goals and career direction enabled an individual to identify career opportunities (McArdle et al., 2007). A person would have fewer concerns about holding a specific job the more he or she realized opportunities were available. Also, awareness of one's knowledge, skills, and abilities made one more employable during personnel selection should obtaining a new job be necessary (Bangerter et al., 2012). Thus career identity was thought to decrease the fear of losing one's job and thus decrease perceived job insecurity.

Greater perceived competence in one's skills increased need-satisfaction and has also been shown to improve performance and organizational commitment/affect (Greguras & Diefendorff, 2009). Vocational identity has also been associated with

positive life satisfaction, but showed contradictory evidence for job satisfaction (Hirschi, 2011). Savickas (2012) suggested this may be the result of employees confusing the idea of "self" with "work identity." Self represents stable traits more associated with personality, while work identity should be perceived as a narrative, changing through life as purpose and goals become established. This suggests that when job insecurity occurs, employees with a stringent view of their work roles feel personally affronted, while those who view their roles as a growing process will revise their narrative. Holland (1996) suggested that employees will require coping skills and strong identities to overcome the predicted transient work patterns. By his typology, work identity will be defined as personal attributes and abilities rather than specific roles within a particular company. This conceptualization of work identity is congruent with Fugate and Kinicki's (2008) disposition of work identity. From this perspective, work identity is associated with good person-job fit and person-environment fit, which have been associated with high job satisfaction (Edwards & Billberry, 2010; Feij et al., 1999; Greguras & Diefendorff, 2009). Therefore, work identity was presumed to have a positive relationship to general job satisfaction, mitigating the negative effects of job insecurity.

Personality Traits

Personality has long been utilized to identify compatibility between individuals and potential work environments. Almost a century ago, Allport's (1921) work on personality defined it with terms such as "dispositions to action which may be considered and potential behavior" and "adjustment habits" (p. 443). These phrases are foundational to the modern perspective of personality as internal constructs that persuade individuals toward patterns of thinking, feeling, and behaving. Significant to note is that personality

is believed to be stable over an extended period of time, but somewhat fluid at any given point. In recent research, Wille et al. (2013) defined personality traits as "predisposition to behave, think, and feel in a relatively consistent manner over time and across diverse situations" (p. 128). This conceptualization has changed little, but theories on how this broad definition can be measured, generalized, and standardized for practical application have been in debate since before Allport's description. In vocational psychology, the trait perspective has become prominent in the literature. Many theorists, such as Holland, Myers and Briggs, and Super have used traits to evaluate and predict vocational behavior. While these traits are evidenced as relatively stable variables within patterns of behavior, the behaviors themselves can fluctuate (Fleeson & Gallagher, 2009). In fact, research has shown that personality traits become more distinguished to enhance environmental fit when person-environment fit was initially evident (Roberts & Robins, 2004). Wille, Beyers, and De Fruyt (2012) corroborated this by showing that personality traits are malleable regarding vocational identity in young adulthood. While considerable research has debated, since the time of Allport and Cattell, about which adjectives accurately and thoroughly capture personality, the five factor model (FFM) has emerged as a valid impression of overall personality (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Tupes & Christal, 1961). Goldberg (1990) asserted that their study concluded that any English adjective was descriptive of one of the big five traits. Some have continued to argue that focus on the big five loses valuable insights by not considering other personality constructs (O'Neill & Hastings, 2011; Paunonen, & Jackson, 2000). However, while this is not refuted here, I limited this study's analysis to the big five.

The Big Five Personality Factors

The FFM is a leading perspective on work compatibility and is a valid predictor of work related behaviors (McCormick & Burch, 2008). The five factors are Openness to Experience, Conscientiousness, Extroversion, Agreeableness, and Neuroticism and are more commonly called the big five. Many argue that the broad big five traits encompass the larger portion of differences when predicting and explaining human behavior (Paunonen & Nicol, 2001). The FFM has been supported across cultural and geographical locations worldwide (Salgado, Moscoso, & Lado, 2003). As with other trait perspectives, the FFM assumes that traits are relatively stable attributes, providing predictive validity. Not only are the expressions of these traits stable, a person's self-perception of them is shown to be stable as well; although perceptions of the environment fluctuate with changing circumstances (Roberts & Robins, 2004). Still, the big five have been shown to be valid in predicting work behavior (Salgado et al., 2003).

The big five personality traits have also been utilized in identifying motivational tendencies in the work place – intrinsic motivation involving content of the job versus extrinsic motivation involving the context or environment of the job (Bipp, 2010). Additionally, research has supported that personality is a moderator of job performance and satisfaction (Bono & Judge, 2003). Job satisfaction has been known to predict turnover intention (König, Probst, Staffen, & Graso, 2011; Natarajan, & Nagar, 2011). All big five traits have been shown to influence turnover intention (Salgado, 2002). This suggests that the big five traits will also be related to job satisfaction. All five have also been evidenced as affecting work attachment (Neustadt et al., 2006). This suggests that a desire to maintain a job and connect to a particular work role is inherent in human

behavior. A current study by the Society for Human Resource Management (2011) supported this proposition, identifying employment and security as the top two satisfaction factors of U.S. citizens.

Although, the FFM provides a strong foundation for generalizing human behavior, dimensions of these five traits can provide greater clarity for practical application (Powell et a., 2011). Therefore, current research suggested that future studies additionally analyze facets of the big five to enhance understanding of work behavior (Paunonen & Nicol, 2001; Salgado, 2002; Wille et al., 2013). Previous research has also encouraged looking at how facets of personality might affect coping skills, such as dispositional employability, to deal with work related stresses, such as job insecurity (Naswall et al., 2005). As previously established, Conscientiousness and Neuroticism are the most likely for having effects on job insecurity and satisfaction. Therefore, these two specific traits were analyzed to identify facets that might be predictors.

Conscientiousness. Conscientiousness describes individuals who are "purposeful, strong-willed, and determined," as well as "scrupulous, punctual, and reliable" (Costa & McCrae, 1992, p.20-21). By history Conscientiousness has also been labeled, Conscience, Conformity, Dependability, Will to Achieve, and Work (Barrick & Mount, 1991). These labels are evidenced in the six Conscientiousness facets as follows: C1 Competence, C2 Order, C3 Dutifulness, C4 Achievement Striving, C5 Self-Discipline, and C6 Deliberation as measured by the NEO-PI-3 (McCrae & Costa, 2010). High scores in these six areas indicate different elements of Conscientiousness. C1 Competence describes individuals who believe themselves capable and effective; C2 Order reveals those who are organized, neat, and methodical; C3 Dutifulness shows

moral integrity and the belief to uphold scruples and ethical obligations; C4 Achievement Striving defines those who exhibit purpose and goal-oriented behavior; C5 Self-Discipline measures the tendency to self-motivate, accomplish tasks, and show persistence; and C6 Deliberation identified individuals who think through options and are cautious about potential consequences (Costa & McCrae, 1992).

Conscientiousness has been positively related to job satisfaction across cultures, although the degree of Conscientiousness is affected by the culture being studied (Templer, 2012). Thus, a study reviewing the effects of Conscientiousness on variables should involve multiple cultures to increase variability. However, Conscientiousness has been considered to be the highest correlate to job satisfaction of any big five trait (Bruk-Lee, Khoury, Nixon, Goh, & Spector, 2009). Conscientiousness has also been shown to excel in situations where accomplishment, achievement, and quality of life are emphasized (Wille et al., 2012) and where stimulation is high (Rose, Murphy, Byard, & Nikzad, 2002). This suggests strong motivation and work drive, focusing on the positive attributes of one's job. Then, high Conscientiousness showed a tendency to desire intrinsic variables such as autonomy and meaningfulness (Bipp, 2010). Yet Conscientiousness had a negative relationship to organizational affective commitment (Panaccio & Vandenberghe (2012). These studies indicate an independent nature to highly conscientious individuals, not relying on external variables for satisfaction. C1 Competence, C4 Achievement Striving, and C5 Self-Discipline reflect all of these attributes by their defining characteristics (McCrae & John, 1992). Therefore, Conscientiousness and its three facets of C1 Competence, C4 Achievement Striving, and C5 Self-Discipline were considered to all positively relate to job satisfaction.

Regarding perceived employability, Conscientiousness was related when combined with high extroversion and low Neuroticism (Wille et al., 2013). However, Conscientiousness alone was shown to be related to adaptability, although further research on which specific facets might be influential to adaptability was suggested (Neal et al., 2012). Highly conscientious individuals tended to make their career a priority and had high work involvement (Bozionelos, 2004). They also have strong achievement motivation and develop well-defined work identities (Barrick et al., 2013; Judge & Ilies, 2002). Conscientiousness was related to leadership behaviors and status (McCormick & Burch, 2008). These three tendencies suggest a correlation with career motivation and work identity dispositions. Conscientiousness correlated to networking comfort tendencies (Wanberg, Kanfer, and Banas, 2000). Conscientiousness also was related to job search behaviors (Kanfer, Wanberg, & Kantrowitz, 2001) and the increased likelihood to expand capabilities through training (Maurer, Lippstreu, & Judge, 2008). Networking, job search, and training were associated with work and career proactivity (Fugate et al., 2004). Therefore, Conscientiousness was thought to have a positive relationship to this employability disposition. Wille et al. (2013) suggested that C1 Competence, C4 Achievement Striving, and C5 Self-Discipline best predict perceived employability attributes. Thus, these three facets of Conscientiousness were expected to positively correlate with the three employability dispositions of career motivation, work and career proactivity, and work identity.

Neuroticism. Neuroticism is the dimension of the big five that measures emotional stability. Individuals scoring high on Neuroticism had a propensity to experience more negative affectivity as well as less rationalization and coping skills

(Costa & McCrae, 1992). This idea of emotional stability is as old as Greek philosophers and has been incorporated into early modern trait theories, including Eysenck's "big two" (Barrick & Mount, 1991). The trait of Neuroticism has been divided into six facets: N1 Anxiety, N2 Angry Hostility, N3 Depression, N4 Self-Consciousness, N5 Impulsiveness, and N6 Vulnerability as measured by the NEO-PI-3 (McCrae & Costa, 2010). N1 Anxiety focuses on the tendency to worry and fret; N2 Angry Hostility measures tendency to experience anger, irritability, and resentment; N3 Depression emphasizes feelings of being alone, sad, and disparaging; N4 Self-Consciousness represents a social component of embarrassment and fear of criticism; N5 Impulsiveness involves surrendering to urges and desires regardless of consequences; and N6 Vulnerability reveals those with difficulty coping in stressful situations (Costa & McCrae, 1992).

Concerning job insecurity, Neuroticism has been the only big five trait that explains variance in scores (Tivendell & Bourbonnais, 2000). Unsurprisingly, Neuroticism has shown a positive relationship to perceived job insecurity (Blackmore & Kuntz, 2011) and a negative relationship to job satisfaction (Seibert & Kraimer, 2001). Thus, low Neuroticism might be the best predictor of mitigating the effects of job insecurity on job satisfaction. Templer (2012) confirmed that Neuroticism was a valid predictor of job satisfaction across culture. Low Neuroticism has higher P-E fit that increased job satisfaction (Roberts & Robins, 2004). Also, P-E fit seemed to have a cyclic relationship with affect, perpetuating the relationship over time (Yu, 2009). Additionally, individuals with high emotional instability tended to experience more negative events and social relations (Panaccio & Vandenberghe, 2012). Individuals with high Neuroticism expressed poor work attitudes, increasing the probability of job

dissatisfaction (Bozionelos, 2004). High Neuroticism was positively related to work

anxiety and familial obligation (Holland, 1996). Also, N1: Anxiety was indicated as the

specific facet of Neuroticism to predict job satisfaction (Bruk-Lee et al., 2009). Thus, N1

Anxiety was most expected to moderate the effect of job insecurity on job satisfaction.

     Neuroticism has a negative association with employability (Neal et al., 2012;

Wille et al., 2013). Neuroticism was also negatively related to career motivation (Judge

& Ilies, 2002). Conversely, those with low Neuroticism expressed greater internal

motivation as evidenced by patterns of achievement striving and developing strong career

identities (Barrick et al., 2013). Additionally, high Neuroticism revealed a decided lack

of vocational interests (Wille et al., 2012), indicating a lack of work identity. These

assertions suggest that Neuroticism will be negatively related to the employability

dispositions of career motivation and work identity. Since work identity encompasses an

individual's perception of personal employability as part of that identity, one might

conclude that a person with high Neuroticism lacks this insight. Wille et al. (2013)

identified N2 Angry Hostility and N5 Impulsiveness as related to perceived

employability. Thus, these two facets of Neuroticism were expected to negatively relate

to work identity. Furthermore, those with high Neuroticism believe they engage in high

job search actions, but actually follow through with fewer job search behaviors (Kanfer et

al., 2001). Awareness of job opportunities and seeking these out is specific to work and

career proactivity, with which Neuroticism was also thought likely to be negatively

related. Lastly, self-esteem, self-efficacy, and internal locus of control were all strongly

correlated to emotional stability (Bono & Judge, 2003). This suggests that low

Neuroticism correlates to work and career resilience disposition. Wille et al. (2013) put

forth that N1 Anxiety, N3 Depression, and N4 Self-consciousness might explain the variance in these attributes. Therefore, these three facets of Neuroticism were expected to correlate with both work and career proactivity and work and career resilience.

Summary

Job insecurity literature is becoming extensive as the problem persists world-wide and is likely to continue. Not only is the economy remaining unstable, but globalization and technology are forcing organizations to change policies and structure. These economic variables seem to be more significant in developing perceptions of job insecurity, as these perceptions have been shown to be relatively stable in longitudinal studies of the restructuring process (Blackmore & Kuntz, 2011). This suggests that the individual's attributes, rather than external variables, will be significant in moderating the negative effects. Identifying the variables of the individual that are significant might empower the employee to perceive control, which has been a known moderator (Armstrong-Stassen, 2004).

The work environment is shifting. Employees will have unique experiences compared to their predecessors in the past millennium (Konig et al., 2011). Changes in business practice are in response to the global economy, yet these changes are likely to increase the perception of job insecurity in conjunction with economic instability. With job insecurity remaining a continual threat, identifying factors that provide a sense of control to employees will be essential. The negative effects of job insecurity are extensive, but are also shown to be moderated by many other variables. Bringing these moderating factors together will provide a higher perception of employability. Therefore,

research should focus on those aspects of the individual that can be influenced to decrease job insecurity and increase employability.

As reviewed, the negative effects of job insecurity and how to moderate these are prominent in the literature. However, some moderating factors are unchangeable or would take years to alter, such as the demographic variables of gender, age, financial dependence, occupational status, and educational level. Other moderators rely on the government's involvement of a social safety net, which due to the regulations, restrictions, and increased cost, American organizations and citizens might resist. This indicates that the organizations and employees would prefer the control. Previously identified is the cultural disparity in business practice between the United States and other countries. However, a large portion of research on both job insecurity and employability has been conducted outside the United States. Many assertions regarding the consequences and moderators of job insecurity are assumed to be cross-culture and applicable to American workers. A focal transition from unemployment to employability has already occurred in Western Europe (Anderson & Pontusson, 2007). However, sufficient evidence confirming the assumptions on job insecurity has not yet ensued in the United States, much less adequate research on employability.

Therefore, additional confirmation of potential consequences of job insecurity should be verified in a study conducted in the United States. The consequences of job insecurity on job satisfaction, which reflect other consequences related to well-being, organizational attitudes, and productivity and profitability for the organization, were explored in this study. The participants for this study came from companies/organizations with more than 500 employees as a reflection of standardized

business practice in the United States. Large companies and organizations also have a greater number of employees from which to benefit if job insecurity is moderated (McFarlane et al., 1989).

The internal moderators analyzed in this study are the big five personality facets of Conscientiousness and Neuroticism and the five employability dispositions identified by Fugate (2008). While personality traits are relatively stable, facets of these can be malleable for self-improvement (Wille et al., 2012). If individuals can identify which personality facets positively influence job insecurity and satisfaction, then they can enhance characteristics and behaviors associated with them. Organizations can implement social support and training options to enhance desired characteristics. However, personality traits are not the only internal attributes likely to affect job security and satisfaction. Additional emphasis on employability and those attributes that enable employees to feel confident in finding and maintaining a job is necessary. The majority of previous research emphasized moderating effects of either external variables or primary personality traits, rather than more specific, malleable internal attributes (Loi et al., 2012). The focus here, therefore, included more specific internal attributes of both personality facets and employability dispositions that potentially moderate job insecurity and improve job satisfaction. The outcomes of this study are also discussed to evaluate which personality facets best support dispositions of employability. These can then be the focus of trainings and self-improvement exercises as a means of both mitigating the negative consequences of persistent economic turmoil and instilling personal control. The structure and methodology of this study is now outlined in Chapter 3 to clarify how these variables were explored for potential practical application.

Chapter 3: Research Methods

Introduction

The effects of job insecurity on job satisfaction have long been studied. These effects are predominantly negative, resulting in poor working conditions for both the employees and the employer (Cheng & Chan, 2008; Reisel et al., 2007). In this research, I explored internal characteristics that might mitigate these effects. Economic turbulence is likely to continue, requiring workers to cope with frequent changes (Anderson & Pontusson, 2007; Berntson et al., 2010; Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 2010; Holland, 1996). Also, companies are ever in competition with each other, demanding a faster pace and higher productivity (Hankins, 2012). Individuals can be caught within this strife, pulled in one direction to maintain a job and financial stability and in the other direction to have self-satisfaction and purpose. Finding a balance within this struggle is the responsibility of the individual. While organizations can implement programs, trainings, and motivational opportunities, their top priority for doing so is often in meeting the end goals of the company. Therefore, individuals are left with the burden of ensuring their own ability to both maintain employment and derive a sense of generativity while doing so. According to TWA and PEC, this is accomplished by a reciprocal relationship of meeting needs between the employee and the employer (Dawis & Lofquist, 1976). I proposed to examine personal attributes that might aid in bringing about this harmony. The methodology for fulfilling this purpose is thus outlined.

Research Design and Approach

In this study, I assessed the effects that various dispositions of employability and facets of personality have on job insecurity and satisfaction. The DME (Fugate &

Kinick, 2008) and the NEO-PI-3 (McCrae & Costa, 2010) were used to assess the

employees' personal attributes. The MSQ (Weiss et al., 1967) identified the employees'

level of security and satisfaction. These assessment tools provided quantifiable data to

determine potential predictors of the dependent variables.

Job insecurity, as a subjective perception of the probability of having one's job

terminated, is thus formed by the individual's unique characteristics (Berntson et al.,

2010). For this reason, identifying attributes that affect the perception of job insecurity

permits both employees and organizations to find means of enhancing those attributes

that minimize perceived job insecurity and subverting those attributes that exacerbate it.

This is important in an uncertain economy, as research supports that job insecurity can

have greater consequences than actual unemployment (Burgard, Brand, & House, 2009).

High job satisfaction and performance are the evidence of correspondence

between an employee and employer, indicating that needs of the individuals and

requirements of the organization are both being met (Dawis & Lofquist, 1976; Feij et al.,

1999). Job insecurity is detrimental to both and thus considered a violation of

psychological contract within this employment relationship. Job satisfaction and

performance are also positively related to each other, although the prior is expected to be

the antecedent of the latter (Edwards et al., 2008). Lastly, while job satisfaction and

performance might decrease due to job insecurity, they have also shown to decrease the

effects of job insecurity when enhanced by other means (i.e., training, social support)

during times of employment uncertainty (Reisel et al., 2010). Therefore, individual

attributes that can positively predict job satisfaction were expected to also mitigate effects

of job insecurity and maintain correspondence between the employee and employer. The

improvement of both satisfaction and performance increases the likelihood of tenure and fulfills the needs of both worker and organization. Due to the high correlation between job satisfaction and performance, attributes that increase satisfaction are also likely to improve performance; thus, in this study I only emphasized job satisfaction.

Employability, according to this study, is the perception that one is marketable within the labor force. Employability does not necessarily equate to the ease of acquiring a new job but is shown to reduce negative affect associated with work stressors (De Battisti et al., 2011). However, employability is a broad and vague concept that has only recently been clarified by defined dispositions (Fugate & Kinicki, 2008). The broad measures of employability provide evidence of reducing perceived job insecurity and increasing job satisfaction and performance (De Cuyper et al., 2008; Wittekind et al., 2010). Therefore, I expected the outcomes of this study to identify those specific dispositions of employability that may have greater influence on these variables and produce more practical applications in the workplace.

Personality, comprised of an individual's thoughts, feelings, and behaviors, demands purpose in activities such an employment (Barrick et al., 2013). This purpose is unique to the individual, requiring different need fulfillment to establish job satisfaction. This concept is foundational to TWA or PEC (Dawis & Lofquist, 1993). Also, it suggests that different personality types will respond contrarily to work-related stressors such as job insecurity. While job insecurity was shown to have negative influence on many aspects of an individual, personality was also shown to be a moderator of these effects (Bono & Judge, 2003). However, personality, by its broad measure of traits, does not identify plausible adaptation, as these traits are considered relatively stable. Facets of

these traits are evidenced as having more flexibility when training and awareness increase (Neal et al., 2012). Additionally, recognizing personality as multidimensional by observing facets allows researchers to better predict variance criteria (Paunonen & Nicol, 2001). Therefore, I proposed in this study to identify some specific attributes of personality, via clearly defined facets, which, when enhanced, improve resiliency to job insecurity as well as job satisfaction.

By using quantifiable data, statistical significance can be determined according to measurable outcomes of the assessment tools. Multiple regression analysis was used to show which attributes of personality and employability best predict the variables of job insecurity and satisfaction. Studies that have considered the effects of job insecurity on job satisfaction and performance have suggested additional research to identify mitigating factors such as personality and employability (Bipp, 2010; Chirumbolo, & Hellgren, 2003; De Battisti et al., 2011; Naswall et al, 2005; Wittekind et al., 2010). In this study, I explored specific attributes of personality and employability that will possibly fill this research gap.

Setting and Sample

Population

The target population of this study included all employees in the United States who work for an organization with more than 500 employees in which job insecurity are common due to mergers, economic unrest, and restructuring (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 2010). According to the U.S. Census Bureau (2008), less than .1% of firms in the United States retain over 500 employees, yet these few companies employee over 50% of the entire paid labor force. Current labor statistics show over 143 million workers currently

employed in the United States, indicating that more than 70 million individuals work for

an organization with over 500 employees (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2013). However,

due to organizational mandates regarding human resources and geographic

considerations, a probability sampling was not possible. Cochran (1977) asserted that

nonprobability sampling is justified when the sample is restricted to parts of the

population that are readily available and willing to participate. However, he also noted

that this sample of convenience could be a purposive selection when control variables

were identified to increase the likelihood that the sample was reflective of the target

population. Therefore, specific organizations that met the specified criteria of the

population were approached for consideration of participation.

Participants

The participants of this study were a convenience sample, with purposive

selection of employees from two companies. These companies were selected due to

accessibility and willingness to participate in the study; however, they were initially

approached for participation because they met criteria of control variables intended to

acquire a more purposive selection than mere convenience. The control variable criteria

included (a) a large sample of employees working within the United States, (b) a total

number of employees greater than 500, (c) private sector employers, (d) a professed

commitment to improving the working environment, (e) statements of EEO compliance

for hiring, and (f) broad variance of occupational titles among employees.

Control Variables 1 and 2 ensured that the sample met the inclusion criteria for

the target population as outlined in the previous section. Control Variable 3 narrowed the

sampled population to organizations with more autonomy from government regulations,

making them more vulnerable to market competition, layoffs, and/or restructuring

(Gunter & van der Hoeven, 2004). Control Variable 4 was also important for purposive

selection regarding the expected outcomes. Prior research showed that organizational

support was related to higher job satisfaction and performance (Wood & de Menezes,

2011) as well as to the coping tendencies of employees (Armstrong-Stassen, 2004). As

organizational support was related to variables of interest in this study, both the

purposiveness of the sample and the chances of a relationship between other related

variables is increased (Cochran, 1977). Concerning organizational support, one company

dates back to the 1800s and places emphasis on positive relationships and hiring

employees for positions best suited to them according to the principles of PEC. The other

organization has promoted cooperation, respect, and care among its employees since its

establishment in 1965. Thus, these companies met the third control variable.

Additionally, while both companies professed commitment to supporting employees,

they had each recently been affected by economic uncertainty. One company underwent

a recent restructuring process, and the other was significantly affected financially by a

funding cut. Therefore, their typical support would suggest high employee satisfaction

and security, but recent events had likely negatively impacted these variables (Blackmore

& Kuntz, 2001; Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 2010). This further increased the

purposiveness of these companies participating in this study. First, the circumstances

indicated greater variability in job satisfaction and security, which might help to identify

those internal attributes that impact these dependent variables. Second, the economic

turmoil existing for each company made the practicality and applicability of this study

more relevant. The fifth control variable of EEO statements of compliance increased the

likelihood of a diversified sample in terms of demographics. The sample population as

defined by Control Variables 1, 2, and 3 had approximately 50 million members, among

whom 52% were men and 48% were women, and 65% were White and 35% were

minorities (U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, 2012). Companies that

indicate compliance with EEO regulations are more likely to have subsamples congruent

with the target population. Lastly, Control Variable 6 was intended to increase the

probability of variance within the independent variables of this study. As supported by

TWA and P-E perspectives, personality and employability variables affect the type of job

a person is likely to acquire (Edwards & Billsberry, 2010; Hankins, 2012; Holland,

1996). Thus, the companies approached for participation in this study should have

diversity in the employee occupations to derive a variety of personality and employability

types. Also, as one company encompassed industry and customer service and the other

academia and support staff, involving multiple companies in this study was expected to

aid in obtaining this variety, providing that the information gathered from each was

homogeneous with the other. The method for accounting for this is described later in

Data Collection and Analysis.

Therefore, both of the two companies volunteering for this study met the criteria

of these six control variables, allowing purposive selection in this convenience sample

and justifying their participation. Each of the two companies selected an employee pool

at their discretion, meeting the required criteria as outlined in the next section. The

employees of these pools were individually approached and requested to participate.

These potential participants were chosen because (a) they were an accessible population,

(b) they were employed by large companies affected by global economics, (c) they

worked in the United States, (d) their full-time employment implied a mutual relationship with the company to improve satisfaction and performance, and (e) due to the size of the companies, the employees likely had diversity in both demographics and personal attributes.

Inclusion/Exclusion Criteria

The target population for this study included employees working in the United States in organizations of more than 500 employees. The sample population was further reduced by only choosing potential participants who were full time, permanent, and working in the private sector. The companies selected for participation employed individuals who met these criteria. Both companies employed individuals worldwide. However, the nature of this study was specific to employees within the United States. Therefore, only employees of these two companies within this demographic were considered for participation. Additionally, the employees of this study were expected to be full time and not contracted or temporary employees, as research shows distinctions in the variables being studied regarding these employment types (Blackmore & Kuntz, 2011; Gallagher & Sverke, 2005). For example, as evidence of the TWA proposition that harmony is essential in the employee relationship, discorrespondence is more prominent in permanent workers perceiving job insecurity, resulting in lower job satisfaction and performance than in temporary or contracted workers (De Cuyper et al., 2009). Also, temporary or contracted workers seek more opportunity for improving employability but have fewer options for doing so, possibly affecting their dispositions of employability (Forrier & Sets, 2003). Thus, I only focused on permanent employees. Potential relationships between the variables of this study are more likely to be evident

within full-time/permanent employees of large companies that inevitably mandate

employment fluctuation. Although demographic information was collected to ensure like

diversity of the target population, no other exclusions were made on the basis of gender,

ethnicity, age, socioeconomic status, tenure, or employment status.

Procedure of Sample Selection

The two companies were approached for participation in this research study.

Human resources department involvement was essential in the process of acquiring

permission to assess employees. A nondisclosure agreement (NDA) was required by one

company to proceed with the study, which is available in Appendix C. The second

organization's human resource department provided a formal statement of participation

via email, which can also be found in Appendix C. This was intended to assure

confidentiality of the employees, protection of the companies, and integrity of the results.

Both companies agreed to permit the results of this study to be used for both student

dissertation and future publications. Once permission was granted, an email to request

participation was sent to selected employees. Information on the nature and purpose of

the study was sent in this email to the employees within their departments to request

volunteers as participants. An informed consent was agreed to by each participant. The

informed consent can be viewed in Appendix B. Once informed consent was acquired,

then assessments were administered. Two hyperlinks for online administration of the

assessments were emailed to the participant. One link provided access to the

demographic form, the MSQ, and the DME. Permission to use these assessments can be

found in Appendix D. A second link provided remote access to the NEO-PI-3. A $10

gift certificate was sent to each participant who completed the required assessments. This

was intended to both encourage a diversity of employees to participate and to offset the cost of the employees' time for participating.

Sampling Method

The minimum sample size for this study was determined via a computerized power analysis and further justified using a large population formula. These methods required identifying essential statistical components such as effect size, confidence level, standard deviation of response variance, power, and confidence interval. First, Cohen (1988) explained that a medium effect size of a correlation computation is $r = .30$, but a medium effect size in multiple regression is .15 and is approximately equivalent to proportion of variance $(R^2) = .13$. Medium to large effect sizes have been found in similar studies conducted in large businesses on questions such as how facets of Conscientiousness affect work-related attitudes (Christopher, et al., 2008) and how job insecurity affects performance and mental well-being (Chirumbolo & Areni, 2010). Thus, a medium to large effect size is justified in determining the sample size for this study, but to ensure a large enough sample size, the medium effect size was used for computation.

Concerning confidence levels and power, Cohen (1988) also asserted that regression analysis is typically run at $\alpha = .05$ to avoid falsely rejecting the null hypothesis and sample size is most commonly computed at power of .8. The power of .8 was used in computing the sample size of this study. However, in instances where independent variables within the same analysis have correlates, alpha level .01 is used to avoid excessive rejection of the null hypothesis. The compensation for this possibility in this study was to run several multiple regression analyses wherein the independent variables

of each set would not have collinearity. A maximum of six independent variables were analyzed within any given set. Therefore, the independent variables with expected correlations were analyzed separately, justifying the use of alpha level .05 as Cohen suggested. Further rationale and procedure of data analysis is discussed later.

Furthermore, a computerized priori power analysis computed by IMB SPSS SamplePower Version 3.0 (Borenstein, Rothstein, & Cohen, 2008) revealed that for a test of multiple regression with a maximum of six independent variables within a set at a 5% Type I error rate ($\alpha = .05$) to detect a medium effect size ($f^2 = .15$) at a sufficient statistical power (.80) a sample size of 84 participants was required. This power analysis was justified with a standardized formula developed by Cochran (1977) for determining sample size of large populations $n_o = t^2 pq/d^2$, which was later revised slightly to $n_o = Z^2 pq/e^2$ as a means of accounting for unknown variables (Israel, 2013; Smith, 2013). In this formula, the sample size was determined by identifying a confidence level, standard deviation of responses or amount of variability within a population, and the acceptable precision or confidence interval. The confidence level of 95% remained the same as discussed above, being converted to a Z-score of 1.96, and the confidence interval allows for a 20% chance of error at $\pm 10\%$ precision, being similar to the .8 power of the power analysis. The variability or standard deviation of responses was set at .5 because this permits maximum variability of the population prior to data collection, creating the most conservative sample size (Israel, 2013; Smith, 2013). When these numbers are calculated into the formula, a sample size of 96 was required.

Although the results of the two methods for determining sample size were marginally different, they provided a result similar enough to justify a minimum sample

size of 100 participants for this study. Also, previous studies analyzing similar job-related variables of employees using regression analysis have had between 100-150 participants when all data was collected (Blackmore & Kuntz, 2011; Staufenbiel & Konig, 2010; Wittekind et al., 2010). Due to potential of missing data as a result of invalid or incomplete assessments, requests for participation was made of 500 employees to ensure a minimum sample size was obtained.

<div align="center">**Instrumentation**</div>

Demographic Form

A demographic survey was provided to identify aspects of the individuals participating. The questions included identification of age, ethnicity, gender, educational level, occupational genre, tenure, and income level. Each area was defined by categories from which the participant can choose or select an option of "prefer not to answer." The demographic form can be found in Appendix A.

MSQ

Administration. The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire was developed by Weiss, Dawis, England, and Lofquist (1967) during their research on the Work Adjustment Project. The MSQ was intended to identify the level of job satisfaction an employee feels based on fulfillment of personal needs. The MSQ is a 100 item assessment that requires 15-20 minutes to complete. The MSQ reduced the employees' needs into 20 categories, each containing five items. Two versions of the MSQ have been developed; however, I administered the 1967 version. The 1967 version was selected because the response categories typically result in a more normative distribution, better suited for studies assessing predictive variables (University of Minnesota, 1967).

The response categories for each item involve a 5-point Likert scale: "*Not Satisfied*," "*Somewhat Satisfied*," "*Satisfied*," "*Very Satisfied*," and "*Extremely Satisfied*" (Weiss et al., 1967). The 20 items from the MSQ that derive the General Satisfaction Scale was used for determining the Overall Job Satisfaction score in this study. One of the need categories assessed in the MSQ is Job Security. The combined score of the five items to compute the Security Scale was used as the value for the level of Job Insecurity an employee perceives.

Reliability and validity. The reliability and validity of the MSQ was initially established using 27 normative groups (Weiss et al., 1967). Internal consistency measurements derived a median reliability coefficient of .88 on the General Satisfaction Scale and .80 on the Security Scale. Darwish (1998) utilized the Security Scale for a recent study and determined the internal consistency to be .85. Other research supports the reliability of the MSQ's General Satisfaction Scale with an alpha coefficient of .91 (Xiao-Dong et al., 2013). Stability was evaluated using test-retest correlation coefficients after a one week period and a one year period. Test-retest correlation coefficients for General Satisfaction for each period were .89 and .70 respectively and for Security Scale were .70 and .58 respectively (Xiao-Dong et al., 2013). Scores on an assessment of this nature are expected to fluctuate over time as they are situational, but these are within the range of acceptable stability (Cohen, 1988). A secondary method of determining stability used canonical correlation, identifying a maximum coefficient of .97 for the one week period and .89 for the one year period, resulting in a significance level beyond p = .001 (Weiss et al., 1967). Content and construct validity was supported by the developers for the General Satisfaction Scale in accordance to the TWA theory. This was determined by

comparing results of the Minnesota Importance Questionnaire to the MSQ, confirming

that those needs deemed significant to employees were the needs required to be met by

the company to engender satisfaction (Weiss et al., 1967). Darwish (1998) concurred

with TWA that scores on the Security Scale were reflective of need satisfaction and

indeed measured job insecurity. Buitendach and Rothmann (2009) asserted that the MSQ

provided valid measures of job satisfaction across cultures. Finally, predictive validity of

the MSQ was evidenced by higher scores of satisfaction correlating to tenure, supporting

TWA propositions that satisfied employees will likely continue with a company and

perform to company expectations for being retained (Frye, 2012; Xiao-Dong et al., 2013).

Rationale. The MSQ was appropriate for this study because it provided a

measurement that has long-standing research supporting its reliability and validity. The

MSQ was specifically designed to assess job satisfaction according to the principles of

the TWA and PEC theories, foundational to this study. Also, job satisfaction involves

many areas of need fulfillment, unique to various occupational demographics (Weiss et

al., 1967). The MSQ accounts for this diversity and should provide accurate results of

job satisfaction and security among an organization with employee diversity such as

those participating in this study.

DME

Administration. The Dispositional Measure of Employability was developed by

Fugate and Kinicki (2008) after their research led them to conclude that defined and

distinct constructs of employability exist. The DME identifies five dimensions of

employability: (a) openness to change at work, (b) work and career resilience, (c) work

and career proactivity, (d) career motivation, and (e) work identity. The purpose of the

DME was to identify dispositions that enable an employee to cope with organizational

changes and prepare for a turbulent economic environment (Fugate & Kinicki, 2008).

The DME contains 25-items, each scored on a 5-point Likert scale from *Strongly*

Disagree (1) to *Strongly Agree* (5), and requires about five minutes to complete (Fugate

& Kinicki, 2008). Permission to use the DME was obtained via email with Dr. Fugate.

Correspondence of this permission can be found in its entirety in Appendix D.

Reliability and validity. Due to the recent development of the DME, reliability

and validity measures only have preliminary data. Fugate and Kinicki (2008) initially

conducted three studies to support the DME. They identified internal consistency by

computing an alpha coefficient for each of the five dimensions, ranging from .68 to .82.

Additional research found reliability of the DME dispositions to have alpha coefficients

ranging from .70 to .92 (Wen, Four, Aik, Tiong, & En Loong, 2011). Fugate and Kinicki

(2008) supported content validity by inter-rater reliabilities ranging from .97-.99 and a

further study in which the five factors accounted for 57.26% of the variance in

employability. A second study supported the construct validity, revealing that the "latent

dimensions share common content related to employability, yet possess enough

uniqueness to render them independent indicators of dispositional employability" (Fugate

& Kinicki, 2008, p. 514). Lastly, a third study by Fugate and Kinicki (2008) supported

predictive validity of the DME by confirming that these five dispositions of

employability are positively related to both positive emotions and affective commitment

regarding organizational change. De Battisti, Gilardi, Ricco, Siletti, and Solari (2011)

affirmed that employability was a multidimensional construct, utilizing components of

the DME, and that the dispositions aide in the physical and mental well-being of individuals during employment uncertainty.

Rationale. The DME was appropriate for this study as a measure of personal attributes that comprise the broad concept of employability. This allowed clarification of a multidimensional construct into specific factors that are potentially malleable. The results of this study revealed attributes that an individual can manipulate to potentially better cope with the stresses of workplace uncertainty. The initial findings of validity of the DME suggested these dispositions accomplish this very purpose (Fugate & Kinicki, 2008). I proposed to explore whether or not these attributes transcend beyond positive emotion and commitment to improve satisfaction and performance.

NEO-PI-3

Administration. The NEO Personality Inventory-3 was developed by McCrae and Costa (2010) as "a comprehensive assessment of adolescent and adult personality (p. 1). The NEO-PI-3 provides a T-score on each of the big five personality traits: (a) Openness to Experience, (b) Conscientiousness, (c) Extroversion, (d) Agreeableness, and (e) Neuroticism and their 30 facets. In this study, I evaluated the six facets of each of two personality dimensions: Conscientiousness and Neuroticism. The T-scores are derived from 240 items that are answered on a 5-point Likert scale from *Strongly Disagree* (1) to *Strongly Agree* (5) and take approximately 35-45 minutes to complete. Once derived, the T-scores are categorized according to norms, placing individuals' scores into five potential groupings ranging from *Very Low* (1) to *Very High* (5).

Reliability and validity. The reliability and validity of the NEO-PI-3 have extensive research supporting it. Alpha coefficients for the traits of Conscientiousness

and Neuroticism are .90 and .92 respectively (McCrae & Costa, 2010). The alpha

coefficients for the facets of Conscientiousness range from .62 to .75, and the facets of

Neuroticism range from .68 to .81 (McCrae & Costa, 2010). These ratings of internal

consistency were confirmed by Klang (2012) for the main traits of Conscientiousness (α

= .94) and Neuroticism (α = .90). Test-retest reliability is reported to be .92 and .91 for

Conscientiousness and Neuroticism respectively and range from .75 to .90 on the

Conscientiousness facets and from .77 to .90 on the Neuroticism facets (McCrae & Costa,

2010). Evidence of content, convergent, and discriminate validity of the NEO-PI-3 have

been compiled over decades of research and showed more than acceptable criteria for

each (McCrae & Costa, 2010).

      Rationale. The NEO-PI-3 was appropriate for this study as a widely used

measure of personality. The NEO-PI-3 was compiled based on the big five model of

personality, supporting the theoretical framework of this study. Also, the NEO

inventories were reported as the best validated big five measures (Fazeli, 2012). Both

traits and their facets of personality are evaluated in the NEO-PI-3. While personality

traits are relatively stable over time, facets can fluctuate some, allowing for marginal

change in the areas that might benefit employees (Wille et al., 2013). The NEO-PI-3 also

provided scores for these unique facets, permitting more flexibility in practical

application. The NEO-PI-3 was short enough for use with multiple assessment tools, yet

sufficiently comprehensive to provide thorough information. Also, as a long standing,

extensively used instrument, the NEO-PI-3 brought credibility to a controversial concept

of defining and measuring personality.

Data Collection and Analysis

Each participant completed a demographic survey, the DME, NEO-PI-3, and the MSQ. These reflected self-reported measures of the employees' beliefs regarding their attributes of employability and personality as well as their perceptions of job security and satisfaction.

Analysis

Initially an intraclass correlation (ICC) analysis was performed between the scores obtained from each company to confirm homogeneity and ensure results could be explained by the individual cases rather than between group variance. This process has been conducted previously as a means of combining data from multiple companies for studies on both job insecurity and employability (Sora et al., 2009; Wittekind et al, 2010). Then, scores on the DEM and NEO-PI-3 were analyzed against each of the two dependent variables (a) job insecurity as measured by the security dimension on the MSQ and (b) job satisfaction as measured by the overall score of the MSQ. The five dispositions of employability, measured by the DME are: (a) openness to change at work, (b) work and career resilience, (c) work and career proactivity, (d) career motivation, and (e) work identity (Fugate & Kinicki, 2008). The six personality facets on the dimension of Conscientiousness as measured by the NEO-PI-3 are: (a) Competence, (b) Order, (c) Dutifulness, (d) Achievement Striving, (e) Self-Discipline, and (f) Deliberation (McCrae & Costa, 2010). The six personality facets on the dimension of Neuroticism as measured by the NEO-PI-3 are: (a) Anxiety, (b) Angry Hostility, (c) Depression, (d) Self-Consciousness, (e) Impulsiveness, and (f) Vulnerability (McCrae & Costa, 2010). The effects of these 17 independent variables, as measured by the DME and NEO-PI-3, on

each of the two dependent variables were examined. In order to determine these potential

effects, multiple regression analysis was conducted. A multiple regression analysis

identified those attributes which had a significant effect on the two dependent variables,

also revealing the degree of variance explained by each (George & Mallery, 2011). Since

the intent here was to identify which dispositions of employability, which facets of

Conscientiousness, and which facets of Neuroticism best predict the variance of the two

dependent variables, individual multiple regression analyses were computed. Thus, each

of these three groupings of independent variables was tested against each of the two

dependent variables, resulting in six multiple regression analyses. The regression

analyses were conducted by IBM SPSS Statistics Version 20. A multiple regression

analysis was appropriate for this study because it determined which attributes positively

influenced job insecurity and satisfaction as well as provided predictive values showing

the degree of influence (George & Mallery, 2011). Additionally, a correlation matrix was

computed on the 17 independent variables to determine potential relationships between

these, specifically between the facets of personality and the dispositions of employability.

Statement of Research Questions and Hypotheses

Research Question 1. Do any of the five dispositions of employability, as

measured by the DME, or six facets of either Conscientiousness or Neuroticism, as

measured by the NEO-PI-3, explain the variance in perceived job insecurity, as measured

by the MSQ in full-time employees of companies/organizations with more than 500

employees?

Null Hypothesis 1 (H_{0-1}). None of the five dispositions of employability, as measured by the DME, will predict to statistical significance the variance in job insecurity, as reported in the MSQ.

Alternative Hypothesis 1 (H_{1-1}). At least one of the five dispositions of employability, as measured by the DME, will predict to statistical significance the variance in job insecurity, as reported in the MSQ.

Null Hypothesis 2 (H_{0-2}). None of the six facets of Conscientiousness, as measured by the NEO-PI-3, will predict the variance in job insecurity, as reported in the MSQ.

Alternative Hypothesis 2 (H_{1-2}). At least one of the six facets of Conscientiousness, as measured by the NEO-PI-3, will predict the variance in job insecurity, as reported in the MSQ.

Null Hypothesis 3 (H_{0-3}). None of the six facets of Neuroticism, as measured by the NEO-PI-3, will predict the variance in job insecurity, as reported in the MSQ.

Alternative Hypothesis 3 (H_{1-3}). At least one of the six facets of Neuroticism, with N1: Anxiety being the most likely, as measured by the NEO-PI-3, will predict the variance in job insecurity, as reported in the MSQ.

Research Question 2. Do any of the five dispositions of employability, as measured by the DME, or six facets of either Conscientiousness or Neuroticism, as measured by the NEO-PI-3, explain the variance in perceived job satisfaction, as measured by the MSQ in full-time employees of companies/organizations with more than 500 employees?

Null Hypothesis 4 (H$_{0-4}$). None of the five dispositions of employability, as measured by the DME, will predict the variance in job satisfaction, as reported in the MSQ.

Alternative Hypothesis 4 (H$_{1-4}$). At least one of the five dispositions of employability, as measured by the DME, will predict the variance in job satisfaction, as reported in the MSQ.

Null Hypothesis 5 (H$_{0-5}$). None of the six facets of Conscientiousness, as measured by the NEO-PI-3, will predict the variance in job satisfaction, as reported in the MSQ.

Alternative Hypothesis 5 (H$_{1-5}$). At least one of the six facets of Conscientiousness, as measured by the NEO-PI-3, will predict the variance in job satisfaction, as reported in the MSQ.

Null Hypothesis 6 (H$_{0-6}$). None of the six facets of Neuroticism, as measured by the NEO-PI-3, will predict the variance in job satisfaction, as reported in the MSQ.

Alternative Hypothesis 6 (H$_{1-6}$). At least one of the six facets of Neuroticism, as measured by the NEO-PI-3, will predict the variance in job satisfaction, as reported in the MSQ.

Research Question 3. Do any of the five dispositions of employability, as measured by the DME, have a statistically significant relationship with any of the six facets of either Conscientiousness or Neuroticism, as measured by the NEO-PI-3, in full-time employees of companies/organizations with more than 500 employees?

Null Hypothesis 7 (H$_{0-7}$). None of the five dispositions of employability as measured by the DME will show a significant relationship to any of the six personality facets of Conscientiousness as measured by the NEO-PI-3.

Alternative Hypothesis 7 (H$_{1-7}$). At least one of the dispositions of employability, as measured by the DME will show a significant positive relationship to at least one of the six facets of Conscientiousness, as measured by the NEO-PI-3.

Null Hypothesis 8 (H$_{0-8}$). None of the five dispositions of employability as measured by the DME will show a significant relationship to any of the six personality facets of Neuroticism as measured by the NEO-PI-3.

Alternative Hypothesis 8 (H$_{1-8}$). At least one of the dispositions of employability, as measured by the DME will show a significant negative relationship to at least one of the six facets of Neuroticism, as measured by the NEO-PI-3.

Ethical Considerations

For this study, I was required to meet the approval of Walden University's IRB prior to data collection. Once this approval was obtained, the study commenced in acquiring participants and identifying volunteers for the study. Secure online links were provided for individual administration of assessment tools via email. This protected the integrity of the assessment tools as well as ensured accessibility only by those who had consented to participate. Only I had access to the results to maintain participant confidentiality. The results of each participant's assessments were saved as encrypted files. Explanations of this process were provided in the informed consent, which can be found in Appendix B. Additionally, clarification of these obligations is clearly defined in the NDA found in Appendix C.

Confidentiality was important to ensure that the results of this study were not used for employment decisions. These measures of ensuring confidentiality were outlined in the Informed Consent (Appendix B). Additionally, the nature, purpose, and procedures of the study were contained in the Informed Consent and were provided to each participant prior to administration of assessments. Consent to this document was required prior to participation. Participants were also informed that they were volunteers and could have withdrawn from the study at any time and for any reason.

An NDA or statement of participation from each organization was required as per each company's human resource mandates. The NDA and statement of participation are available in Appendix C. These protected the organizations' interest in the study, but permitted accurate presentation of the results found. The organizations were informed of the results upon conclusion of the study. A debriefing Power Point was also made available and distributed to participants who requested information on the results. However, results specific to the individual participants remain confidential and will be kept in a secured location for five years.

Participation in this study was not expected to result in emotional duress or mental strain requiring professional services. However, both companies provided these resources as part of their benefits package. Through the organizations' EAP programs or provided health insurance, mental health counseling was available to the participants. The participants were provided this information and encouraged to contact the Human Resources Department should they feel the need to do so.

Summary

In this study, I explored the possibility that personal attributes influence perceived job insecurity and satisfaction. Dispositions of employability and facets of personality were analyzed to examine their relationships to these variables. The purpose was to provide potential evidence of characteristics that can mitigate negative consequences of a turbulent economy. The positive social change implications would be to improve the satisfaction and well-being of employees and the productivity of organizations. This could mean greater life satisfaction for individuals and an overall progressive economy (De Cuyper et al., 2008; Hankins, 2012). A demographic form and the assessments of the MSQ, DME, and NEO-PI-3 were administered to evaluate these possibilities. Multiple regression analyses were used to compute data and determine whether or not relationships exist. Independent variables were also compared for potential correlations. Awareness of ethical considerations was addressed throughout the study. The purpose, intent, and procedures for this study were presented to Walden University's IRB. Upon approval, commencement of this study progressed. Formal approval from the organizations was obtained, and data was collected. Finally, information regarding findings and implications of the results are reported and discussed in Chapters 4 and 5.

Chapter 4: Results

Introduction

The organization based in a corporate setting provided 52 individuals to approach for participation; the organization in the academic setting provided 448 individuals to invite. Of those invited from the corporate setting, 26 individuals agreed to participate. Of those invited from the academic setting, 74 individuals agreed to participate. This derived the expected 100 participants, although only 24 from the corporate and 72 from the academic setting completed the required surveys. Thus, 96 total participants were included in this study, reaching the necessary sample size to maintain either a power of .80 or a $\pm10\%$ precision, depending on the formula used for computing sample size (Borenstein, Rothstein, & Cohen, 2008; Cochran, 1977). Demographics were collected on those participating; detailed specifics of these demographics can be viewed in Table 1. Of those participating, 40 reported being male, 55 reported being female, and one reported being of another gender specification. Concerning age, about one-third of the participants were under the age of 45 years, another third was between 45 and 55 years, and the final third was over 55 years. According to Erikson, about two-thirds of the participants would have been considered in his *generativity versus stagnation* stage, at which point in life career advancement and achievement are important to individual social development (Erikson, 1989). Regarding ethnicity and race, nearly three-fourths of the participants reported being Caucasian, while the other fourth was comprised of those identifying themselves as Black/African American, Hispanic/Latino, Asian, or of other or multiple ethnicities/races.

Table 1

Frequency of Demographics

Demographic (*N* = 96)	*n*	Percent
Gender		
Male	40	41.7
Female	55	57.3
Other	1	1.0
Age		
18-24 years	1	1.0
25-34 years	16	16.7
35-44 years	20	20.8
45-54 years	29	30.2
55-64 years	22	22.9
65+ years	6	6.3
Declined to answer	2	2.1
Ethnicity/Race		
Caucasian	74	77.1
African American/Black	2	2.1
Hispanic/Latino	14	14.6
Asian	2	2.1
Other/Multiple	4	4.2
Relationship status		
Married	75	78.1
Widowed	1	1.0
Divorced	8	8.3
Domestic partnership	3	3.1
Single, never married	7	7.3
Declined to answer	2	2.1

Note. n = number of participants.

Last of the general demographics identified was relationship status. More than three-fourths of the participants reported being married, while the rest specified being widowed, being divorced, living in a domestic partnership, or being single/never marrying, or declined to answer.

The final four demographics gathered in the surveys were specifically career related and included education, income, tenure, and the reason for leaving the participant's last job. The frequencies of these career demographics can be viewed in Table 2. Concerning education, 10 participants declared having a high school diploma or some college; three had completed a vocational or certificate program; and eight had obtained an associate's degree, 19 had obtained a bachelor's degree, 43 had earned a master's degree, and 13 had received a doctoral degree. Income of the participants was widely varied, but 85% earned less than $100,000 annually. The tenure of the participants was almost exactly halved between those who had been at their current place of employment for 10 years or less and those who had been at their current place of employment for longer than 10 years. Finally, 79 participants reported voluntary termination of their previous job, while 10 had been laid off or involuntarily terminated and seven declined to answer. These variables were potentially significant in supporting the theoretical framework of this study. According to the premises of TWA and PEC, employees with longer tenure will have greater satisfaction and security, remaining in their positions longer as influenced by these variables (Dawis & Lofquist, 1976). Based on the data in this study, their assertion is supported. Spearman's rho revealed a significant positive relationship between tenure and both general job satisfaction ($r(94) = .27$, $p = .006$) and perceived job insecurity ($r(94) = .20$, $p = .05$). However, these

relationships might be skewed from the overall population of full-time employees of companies with more than 500 workers, as the participants of this study largely came from an academic setting, where organizational policies assure job security for tenured employees (American Association of University Professors, 1993). Conversely, large corporations are becoming less tolerant, having greater expectations of employee skills and abilities, so that lifetime tenure is no longer the norm of modern business (Hankins, 2012; Savickas, 2012). Still, other research concurs with these findings that tenure is positively related to job satisfaction, even in large businesses in the private sector (Natarajan & Nagar, 2011). By contrast to tenure, whether or not the employee voluntarily or involuntarily left their last position was unrelated to current perceived job satisfaction ($r(94) = .-.10$, $p = .346$) and security ($r(94) = -.028$, $p = .798$). This suggests employees are capable of framing their current employment satisfaction and security distinct from the negative emotional state of their previous employment when terminated involuntarily. An inference can also be made that dispositional attribution positively affected employees' perception of their current working condition, countermanding the external influences that led to their previous termination. This supposition is supported in the results answering the three research questions of this study. First, however, an intraclass correlation (ICC) was necessary to ensure that the data of the two groups could be used homogeneously.

Table 2

Frequency of Career-Related Demographics

Demographic (*N* = 96)	*n*	Percent
Education		
HS diploma	2	2.1
Some college	8	8.3
Vocation/Certificate	3	3.1
Associate's degree	8	8.3
Bachelor's degree	19	19.8
Master's degree	43	44.8
Doctoral degree	13	13.5
Income		
< $25,000	6	6.3
$25,000-$49,999	23	24.0
$50,000-$74,999	28	29.2
$75,000-$99,999	25	26.0
$100,000-$124,999	6	6.3
$125,000-$149,000	1	1.0
$150,000-$174,999	1	1.0
> $200,000	1	1.0
Declined to answer	5	5.2
Tenure		
0-1 years	7	7.3
2-5 years	20	20.8
6-10 years	22	22.9
11-15 years	17	17.7
16-20 years	8	8.3
21-25 years	7	7.3
25+ years	15	15.6
Reason for leaving last job		
Voluntary resignation	79	82.3
Laid off (due to downsizing)	7	7.3
Involuntary termination	3	3.1
Declined to answer	7	7.3

Note. n = number of participants.

Intraclass Correlation

Typically, an ICC is used to determine reliability between rater responses, with a high correlation desired to prove reliability between two unpaired groups. However, for the purposes of this study, an ICC was used to confirm that the scores were due to individual differences of the participants rather than due to the differences of the groups.

> The ICC measures the proportion of the total variance of a variable that is accounted for by the clustering (company membership) of the cases. If the ICC is close to 0, the cases are independent and, thus, groups could be combined.
>
> (Wittekind et al., 2010, p. 573)

For this reason, a nonsignificant correlation, close to zero, was sought. An ICC was computed for the total scores on the DME and MSQ, as well as the total scores for the Conscientiousness and Neuroticism scales of the NEO-PI-3. Table 3 represents the results of these computations. ICC(1) computed the homogeneity of the scores between the two groups on the DME, finding a correlation of .03. ICC(2) on the MSQ revealed a correlation of .18; ICC(3) on the Conscientiousness scale produced a correlation of -.12, and ICC(4) on the Neuroticism scale a correlation of -.23. Each of these correlations is determined within acceptable limits of combining groups, expecting that the individual ratings explain the variance (Sora et al., 2009). The two relationships that produced a negative correlation coefficient are often interpreted as zero correlation between the group scores (Bartko, 1976). Taylor (2010) further explained that negative scores on an intraclass correlation computation indicate that the scores of the two groups are less similar than would be typically found if any two individuals were randomly selected in the overall population. Therefore, the findings of these ICC computations indicate that

the scores of the two organizations can be combined for the multiple regression analyses

of this study.

Table 3

ICC Results: Proving Homogeneity of the Two Groups

Scales ($n = 24$)	ω^2	p
DME total	.03	.47
General satisfaction total	.18	.32
Conscientiousness total	-.12	.61
Neuroticism total	-.23	.75

Note. ω^2 = strength of the relationship, p = probability of its occurrence being chance.

Initial Findings

Results of the surveys given to participants of this study derived 62 scaled scores.

A total score was obtained on the DME as well as one scaled score for each of its five

dispositional employability traits. From the MSQ, a general satisfaction score and 20

satisfaction subscale scores, including job security, were derived. A total score for each

of the big five personality traits and six subscale facet scores for each of the big five

traits, for a total of 35 scaled scores, was obtained from the NEO-PI-3. However, while

the publishers of these surveys mandated full administration, the research questions of

this study only require the results of the following scales: DME total score, DME five

subscale scores, MSQ General Satisfaction score, MSQ Security score, and the total

scores and six facet subscores of the traits Conscientiousness and Neuroticism on the

NEO-PI-3, for a total of 22 scaled scores. The NEO-PI-3 results were electronically

calculated by PAR Inc. and by process were provided as *t*-scores (McCrae & Costa, 2010). The results of the DME and MSQ were electronically calculated according to the instructions of each assessment's publisher/designer (Fugate & Kinicki, 2008; Weiss et al., 1967). The descriptive statistics of the scaled scores important to this study can be found in Table 4.

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics on Scaled Scores of the DME, MSQ, and NEO-PI-3

Scales (N = 96)	Scale range	*M*	*SD*	Results range	Min/Max
DME total	**25-125**	**103.86**	**10.65**	**44**	**81/125**
Openness to Change at Work	5-25	20.61	2.53	12	13/25
Work & Career Proactivity	3-15	12.32	1.95	7	8/15
Career Motivation	3-15	12.59	1.73	7	8/15
Work & Career Resiliency	8-40	32.54	4.51	23	17/40
Work Identity	6-30	25.79	2.74	11	19/30
General Satisfaction total	**20-100**	**72.16**	**14.38**	**71**	**29-100**
MSQ Security	5-25	18.81	4.52	18	7/25
Conscientiousness total	**----**	**54.46**	**9.73**	**49**	**32/81**
Competence	----	56.33	8.09	42	33/75
Order	----	48.54	10.83	48	25/73
Dutifulness	----	55.10	6.84	35	39/74
Achievement Striving	----	56.25	8.54	37	38/75
Self-Discipline	----	53.75	8.45	44	27/71
Deliberation	----	51.52	9.85	46	26/72
Neuroticism total	**----**	**49.11**	**10.66**	**63**	**22/85**
Anxiety	----	49.0\3	9.55	48	31/79
Angry Hostility	----	47.50	11.13	58	23/81
Depression	----	48.08	9.94	49	28/77
Self-Consciousness	----	48.50	10.44	54	25/79
Impulsiveness	----	49.15	9.97	43	27/70
Vulnerability	----	45.22	7.80	37	29/66

Note. *M* = mean, *SD* = standard deviation.

The DME had a total of 25 questions with a score range of 25-125. Participant responses had a 44-point range, with a minimum response score of 81 and maximum response score of 125 (M = 103.86, SD = 10.65). Five questions were attributed to Openness to Change at Work, three to Work and Career Proactivity, three to Career Motivation, eight to Work and Career Resiliency, and six to Work Identity. Openness to Change at work had a participant score range of 12 and a mean of 20.61 (SD = 2.53). Work and Career Proactivity had a participant score range of 7 and a mean of 12.32 (SD = 1.95). Career Motivation had a participant score range of 7 and a mean of 12.59 (SD = 1.73). Work and Career Resiliency had a participant score range of 23 and a mean of 32.54 (SD = 4.51). Lastly, Work Identity had a participant score range of 11 and a mean of 25.79 (SD = 2.74).

The MSQ consisted of 100 questions, although only 20 of these constituted the General Satisfaction Scale and five of these made up the Security subscale. Results of General Satisfaction varied 71 points, with a minimum score of 29 and a maximum score of 100 (M = 72.16, SD = 14.38). The participants' scores on the Security scale ranged 18 points with a mean of 18.81 (SD = 4.52).

The NEO-PI-3 is comprised of 240 items, 48 items for each of the big five traits; these 48 items again are divided equally so that each facet is based on eight items. Scores are converted into t-scores when presented electronically; therefore, information on the raw scores for this study is unavailable. Nonetheless, the necessary results for running the analyses were collected. The participants' responses on the Conscientiousness trait produced a 49-point range, with the minimum t-score of 32 and the maximum of 81 (M = 54.46, SD = 9.73). The six facets of Conscientiousness derived the following results: (a)

Competence ranged 42 points with a mean of 56.33 ($SD = 8.09$), (b) Order ranged 48

points with a mean of 48.54 ($SD = 10.83$), (c) Dutifulness ranged 35 points with a mean

of 55.10 ($SD = 6.84$), (d) Achievement Striving ranged 37 points with a mean of 56.25

($SD = 8.54$), (e) Self-Discipline ranged 44 points with a mean of 53.75 ($SD = 8.45$), and

(f) Deliberation ranged 46 points with a mean of 51.52 ($SD = 9.85$). The participants'

responses on the Neuroticism trait produced a 63-point range with the minimum t-score

of 22 and the maximum of 85 ($M = 49.11$, $SD = 10.66$). The six facets of Neuroticism

derived the following results: (a) Anxiety ranged 48 points with a mean of 49.03 ($SD =$

9.55), (b) Angry Hostility ranged 58 points with a mean of 47.50 ($SD = 11.13$), (c)

Depression ranged 49 points with a mean of 48.08 ($SD = 9.94$), (d) Self-Consciousness

ranged 54 points with a mean of 48.50 ($SD = 10.44$), (e) Impulsiveness ranged 43 points

with a mean of 49.15 ($SD = 9.97$), and (f) Vulnerability ranged 37 points with a mean of

45.22 ($SD = 7.80$).

The significance of the ranges in participant responses was important to ensure

sufficient variability, specifically on the scales of General Satisfaction and Security. This

was essential to determine which internal attributes tended to affect the variability of

these. Variability of this study's responses on the General Satisfaction and Security

scales was compared to the standardized results provided in the MSQ manual for

nondisabled employees. This comparison revealed sample responses ranging from less

than the 1st percentile to greater than the 99th percentile on both scales when compared to

the standardized norm, confirming sufficient variability of these scales. Thus, the

obtained results passed all measures to ensure their suitability for this study. The

research questions were then analyzed.

Research Question 1

The first research question asked: Do any of the five dispositions of employability, as measured by the DME, or six facets of either Conscientiousness or Neuroticism, as measured by the NEO-PI-3, explain the variance in perceived job insecurity, as measured by the MSQ in full-time employees of companies/organizations with more than 500 employees? Multiple regression analyses were conducted to answer the question. First, the three total scores of DME, Conscientiousness, and Neuroticism were used as predictors of perceived job security in a multiple regression analysis. This resulted in only DME total being a significant predictor of perceived job security (β = .49, $t(95)$ = 5.39, p = .000), while Conscientiousness (β = -.09, n.s.) and Neuroticism (β = -.02, n.s.) were not significant predictors. This initial computation suggests that perceived employability explains 24% (R^2 = .24, $F(1, 95)$ = 29.06, p = .000) of perceived job security variance, but that personality traits of Conscientiousness and Neuroticism as a whole are not significant factors. The next analyses were run to compute the dispositions/facets of these scales individually to potentially identify variables within the larger traits that were significant predicators. The results of the multiple regression analyses, evidencing the significant predictors of job security, can be seen in Table 5.

Table 5

Significant Predictors of Job Security

Predictor ($\underline{N}$ = 96)	R	R^2	Adj. R^2	SE of Est.
DME Total Score	.49	.24	.23	3.97
Work and Career Resiliency	.52	.27	.26	3.88
Vulnerability	.28	.08	.07	4.36

Note. Abbreviations in the header are: Adj. = adjusted and Est. = estimates.

Hypothesis 1

The first regression analysis was used to assess whether any of the five dispositions of employability significantly explained the variance of job insecurity. When the five measures of dispositional employability were run in a multiple regression analysis, using a stepwise method, with Security as the dependent variable, only Work and Career Resiliency came out as a significant predictor of perceived job security (β = .52, $t(95)$ = 5.88, p = .000). Openness to Change at work (β= .12, n.s.), Work and Career Proactivity (β = -.01, n.s.), Career Motivation (β = .15, n.s.), and Work Identity (β = .05, n.s.) were not significant predictors of perceived job security. The overall model fit was R^2 = .27, $F(1, 95)$ = 34.60, p = .000, suggesting that Work and Career Resiliency explains 27% of the variance in perceived job insecurity. Thus, the null hypothesis was rejected.

Hypothesis 2

Next, the six facets of Conscientiousness were computed in a multiple regression analysis to determine significant predictors of perceived job insecurity. This analysis revealed no significant predictors including: Competence (β = .04, n.s.), Order (β = -.14,

n.s.), Dutifulness (β = .15, n.s.), Achievement Striving (β = -.001, n.s.), Self-Discipline (β = -.03, n.s.), and Deliberation (β = -.06, n.s.). The insignificant correlation between these predictors and perceived job insecurity (R = .17) indicates that all six facets together possibly would only account for 3% of the variance of perceived job security (R^2 = .03, $F(6, 95)$ = .45, p = .85). For hypothesis two the null hypothesis was accepted.

Hypothesis 3

Lastly, the six facets of Neuroticism were input into a multiple regression analysis as possible predictors of perceived job security. This analysis revealed vulnerability as a significant predictor of perceived job security (β = -.28, $t(95)$ = -2.77, p = .007). Anxiety (β = .05, n.s.), Angry Hostility (β = .05, n.s.), Depression (β = .004, n.s.), Self-Consciousness (β = .009, n.s.), and Impulsiveness (β = .02, n.s.) were not significant predictors of perceived job security. The overall model fit was R^2 = .08, $F(1, 95)$ = 7.68, p = .007, suggesting that Neuroticism's facet of Vulnerability explains 8% of the variance in perceived job insecurity. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. All results of these analyses can be viewed in Table 6.

Table 6

Influences of Employability and Personality Dispositions on Job Security

Scales ($N = 96$)	β	p
DME total	**.49**	**.000**
Openness to Change at Work	.12	.31
Work & Career Proactivity	-.005	.96
Career Motivation	.15	.18
Work & Career Resiliency	.52	.000
Work Identity	.04	.65
Conscientiousness total	**-.09**	**.32**
Competence	.04	.81
Order	-.14	.29
Dutifulness	.15	.29
Achievement Striving	-.001	.996
Self-Discipline	-.03	.82
Deliberation	-.06	.65
Neuroticism total	**-.02**	**.81**
Anxiety	.05	.73
Angry Hostility	.05	.64
Depression	.004	.98
Self-Consciousness	.009	.94
Impulsiveness	.02	.84
Vulnerability	-.28	.007

Note. β = Beta or influence on the dependent variable, p = probability of significance.

Conclusions of Research Question 1

As a final computation, I put all 17 variables into a multiple regression analysis to determine if the variables together better explained job security. Using a stepwise method, Work and Career Resiliency was the only variable to derive a significant probability as a predictor, with the same results previously reported. An enter method of multiple regression revealed a model using the 17 variables, producing a significant correlation accounting for 37% of the variance of perceived job security ($R = .61$, $R^2 = .37$, $F(17, 95) = 2.7$, $p = .002$). However, again, the only individually significant variable was Work and Career Resiliency. This combined analysis suggests that the variance explained by Vulnerability, when computed apart from employability dispositions, becomes irrelevant when Work and Career Resiliency is included. This could be explained by collinearity between the variables, inferring that the characteristics deriving the Vulnerability scale are also influential in determining the Work and Career Resiliency scale. So, when these variables are combined in an analysis, the Vulnerability scale cannot account for more of the variance within perceived job insecurity to a significant degree than is already accounted for by Work and Career Resiliency. This will be further assessed when results for Research Question 3 are reported.

<div align="center">

Research Question 2

</div>

The second research question asked: Do any of the five dispositions of employability, as measured by the DME, or six facets of either Conscientiousness or Neuroticism, as measured by the NEO-PI-3, explain the variance in perceived job satisfaction, as measured by the MSQ in full-time employees of companies/organizations with more than 500 employees? Multiple regression analyses were conducted to answer

the question. First, the researcher used the three total scores of DME, Conscientiousness, and Neuroticism as predictors of job satisfaction in a multiple regression analysis. This resulted in only DME total being a significant predictor of job satisfaction (β = .58, t(95) = 6.86, p = .000), while Conscientiousness (β = -.03, n.s.) and Neuroticism (β = -.06, n.s.) were not significant predictors. This initial computation suggests that perceived employability explains 33% (R^2 = .33, F(1, 95) = 47.04, p = .000) of the variance in job satisfaction, but that personality traits of Conscientiousness and Neuroticism as a whole are not significant factors. The next analyses were run on the dispositions/facets of these scales individually to potentially identify variables within the larger traits that were significant predicators. The results of the multiple regression analyses, evidencing the significant predictors of job satisfaction, can be seen in Table 7.

Table 7

Significant Predictors of Job Satisfaction

Predictor (N = 96)	R	R^2	Adj. R^2	SE of Est.
DME total score	.58	.23	.33	11.80
Work and Career Resiliency	.63	.40	.39	11.21
Vulnerability	.34	.12	.11	13.60

Note. Abbreviations in the header are: Adj. = adjusted and Est. = estimates.

Hypothesis 4

First, the five dispositions of employability were analyzed to determine whether any of them significantly explained the variance of job satisfaction. When the five measures of dispositional employability were run in a multiple regression analysis, using a stepwise method, with General Satisfaction as the dependent variable, again only Work

and Career Resiliency came out as a significant predictor of perceived job security (β =

.63, $t(95) = 7.90$, $p = .000$). Openness to Change at work ($\beta = .05$, n.s.), Work and Career

Proactivity ($\beta = .01$, n.s.), Career Motivation ($\beta = .16$, n.s.), and Work Identity ($\beta = .05$,

n.s.) were not significant predictors of job satisfaction. The overall model fit was $R^2 =$

.40, $F(1, 95) = 62.46$, $p = .000$, suggesting that Work and Career Resiliency explains 40%

of the variance in job satisfaction. Thus, the null hypothesis was rejected.

Hypothesis 5

Next, the six facets of Conscientiousness were computed in a multiple regression

analysis to identify predictors of job satisfaction. This analysis resulted in no significant

predictors including: Competence ($\beta = .01$, n.s.), Order ($\beta = -.14$, n.s.), Dutifulness ($\beta =$

.12, n.s.), Achievement Striving ($\beta = .16$, n.s.), Self-Discipline ($\beta = -.09$, n.s.), and

Deliberation ($\beta = .07$, n.s.). The insignificant correlation between these predictors and

job satisfaction ($R = .22$) indicates that all six facets combined would account for 5% of

job satisfaction variance ($R^2 = .05$, $F(6, 95) = .75$, $p = .61$), accepting the null hypothesis.

Hypothesis 6

Then, the six facets of Neuroticism were input into a multiple regression analysis

as possible predictors of job satisfaction. Results of the three regression analyses for

Hypotheses 4, 5, and 6 can be viewed in Table 8.

Table 8

Influences of Employability and Personality Dispositions on Job Satisfaction

Scales (N = 96)	β	p
DME total	**.58**	**.000**
Openness to Change at Work	.05	.61
Work & Career Proactivity	.01	.91
Career Motivation	.16	.10
Work & Career Resiliency	.63	.000
Work Identity	.05	.61
Conscientiousness total	**-.03**	**.73**
Competence	.01	.93
Order	-.14	.28
Dutifulness	.12	.39
Achievement Striving	.16	.24
Self-Discipline	-.09	.54
Deliberation	.07	.54
Neuroticism total	**-.06**	**.50**
Anxiety	.02	.88
Angry Hostility	-.08	.43
Depression	-.10	.46
Self-Consciousness	-.02	.90
Impulsiveness	.03	.81
Vulnerability	-.34	.001

Note. β = Beta or influence on the dependent variable, p = probability of significance.

The analysis using Neuroticism facets, too, revealed Vulnerability as a significant predictor of job satisfaction (β = -.34, $t(95)$ = -3.49, p = .001). Anxiety (β= .02, n.s.), Angry Hostility (β = -.08, n.s.), Depression (β = -.1, n.s.), Self-Consciousness (β = -.02, n.s.), and Impulsiveness (β = .03, n.s.) were not significant predictors of job satisfaction. The overall model fit was R^2 = .12, $F(1, 95)$ = 12.17, p = .001, suggesting that Neuroticism's facet of Vulnerability explains 12% of the variance in job satisfaction. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected for Hypothesis 6.

Conclusions of Research Question 2

Again, as a final computation, I put all 17 variables into a multiple regression analysis to determine if the variables together better explained job satisfaction, revealing similar results as on security. Using a stepwise method, Work and Career Resiliency was the only variable to derive a significant probability as a predictor. However, an enter method of multiple regression with all 17 variables and General Satisfaction as the dependent variable revealed both Vulnerability (β = -.39, $t(95)$ = -2.36, p = .02) and Work and Career Resiliency (β = .62, $t(95)$ = 4.66, p = .000) as significant influences on job satisfaction. This model, using the 17 variables, produced a significant correlation accounting for 48% of the variance of job satisfaction (R = .69, R^2 = .48, $F(17, 95)$ = 4.25, p = .000).

Research Question 3

The third research question of this study is: Do any of the five dispositions of employability, as measured by the DME, have a statistically significant relationship with any of the six facets of either Conscientiousness or Neuroticism, as measured by the NEO-PI-3, in full-time employees of companies/organizations with more than 500

employees? A correlation matrix was first computed on the four total scores and the

Security subscale to identify potential relationships between the five overall categories of

this study. These results can be viewed in Table 9.

Table 9

Correlation Matrix of Five Primary Study Variables

Scales				
	Gen Sat	Sec	C-Tot	N-Tot
DME	.53**	.46**	.12	-.29*
Gen Sat	----	.82**	.07	-.17
Sec	----	----	-.01	-.14
C-Tot	----	----	----	.30*

Note. Abbreviations of the table: DME = DME Total score, Gen Sat = MSQ General
Satisfaction total score, Sec = MSQ Security score, C-Tot = Conscientiousness scale total
score, and N-Tot = Neuroticism scale total. Scores reported in the table = *r*.
* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
** Correlation is significant at the 0.001 level (2-tailed).

A Spearman rho was considered appropriate, as some of the scales were not

normally distributed, specifically the Security scale (George & Mallery, 2011). This

correlation matrix revealed several significant relationships. First, General Satisfaction

was strongly related to Security ($r(94) = .82, p = 000$). Second, General Satisfaction was

also positively related to the total DME score ($r(94) = .53, p = .000$). Additionally,

Security was related to the DME total score ($r(94) = .46, p = .000$). Neither personality

trait of Conscientiousness or Neuroticism was related to either General Satisfaction or

Security. However, Neuroticism was negatively related to the DME total ($r(94) = .29, p$

= .004), and the two personality traits were positively related to each other ($r(94) = .30$, p

= .003). These relationships suggest implications discussed in the final chapter.

Hypothesis 7

The second correlation matrix determined potential relationships between

dispositions of employability and facets of Conscientiousness. The results of this matrix

can be viewed in Table 10.

Table 10

Correlation Matrix of Employability Dispositions and Conscientiousness Facets

DME scales	OCW	WCP	CM	WCR	WI
C-Facets					
Competence	.10	.26**	.25*	.16	.09
Order	-.17	.02	.13	.04	.11
Dutifulness	.06	.17	.32**	.15	.24*
Achievement Striving	.03	.33***	.44***	.14	.31**
Self-Discipline	.02	.18	.12	.07	.15
Deliberation	.10	.13	.17	.05	-.03

Note. Abbreviations of the table: OCW = Openness to Change at Work Scale, WCP = Work and Career Proactivity scale, CM = Career Motivation scale, WCR = Work and Career Resiliency scale, and WI = Work Identity scale. Scores reported in the table = r.
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
*** Correlation is significant at the 0.001 level (2-tailed).

The first facet of Conscientiousness, Competence, was positively related to Work

and Career Proactivity ($r(94) = .26$, $p = .009$) and Career Motivation ($r(94) = .25$, $p =$

.01). Dutifulness, the third facet of Conscientiousness, was positively related to Career

Motivation ($r(94) = .32$, $p = .002$) and Work Identity ($r(94) = .24$, $p = .02$). Lastly, the

fourth facet of Conscientiousness, Achievement Striving, was positively related to Work

and Career Proactivity ($r(94)$ = .33, p = .001), Career Motivation ($r(94)$ = .44, p = .000),

and Work Identity ($r(94)$ = .31, p = .002). Order, Self-Discipline, and Deliberation, the

second, fifth, and sixth facets of Conscientiousness respectively, were not related to any

of the employability dispositions. Also, Openness to Change at Work as well as Work

and Career Resiliency had no relationships with any of the Conscientiousness facets.

These correlations suggest that the personality trait of Conscientiousness has

strong relationships with internal dispositions in individuals described as having high

employability. Specifically, dispositions of perceived competence, sense of obligation to

one's job responsibilities, and the desire to be successful in one's job are significant to

one's tendency to be proactive, motivated, and identified in regards to his or her career

status. For this reason, the null hypothesis was rejected.

Hypothesis 8

The third correlation matrix determined potential relationships between

dispositions of employability and facets of Neuroticism. The results of this matrix can be

viewed in Table 11. The first facet of Neuroticism, Anxiety ($r(94)$ = -.21, p = .04), as

well as the fifth facet of Neuroticism, Impulsiveness ($r(94)$ = -.31, p = .002), were

negatively related to Openness to Change at Work. These two facets were also

negatively related to Career Motivation ($r(94)$ = -.21, p = .04; $r(94)$ = -.23, p = .03,

respectively), and Work and Career Resiliency ($r(94)$ = -.38, p = .000; $r(94)$ = -.32, p =

.002, respectively). The second and third facets of Neuroticism, Angry Hostility and

Depression, were negatively related to both Openness to Change at Work ($r(94)$ = -.33, p

= .001; $r(94)$ = -.27, p = .009, respectively) and Work and Career Resiliency ($r(94)$ = -

.34, $p = .001$; $r(94) = -.44$, $p = .000$, respectively). Self-Consciousness, the fourth facet

of Neuroticism, was only negatively related to Work and Career Resiliency ($r(94) = -.34$,

$p = .001$). However, the sixth facet of Neuroticism, Vulnerability, was negatively related

to Openness to Change at Work ($r(94) = -.26$, $p = .01$), Work and Career Proactivity

($r(94) = -.22$, $p = .03$), Career Motivation ($r(94) = -.41$, $p = .000$), and Work and Career

Resiliency ($r(94) = -.38$, $p = .000$). Therefore, each of the facets of Neuroticism had

some relationship with a disposition of employability; however, none of these facets had

a relationship with the employability disposition of Work Identity. Still, the null

hypothesis was rejected for hypothesis eight.

Table 11

Correlation Matrix of Employability Dispositions and Neuroticism Facets

DME Scales	OCW	WCP	CM	WCR	WI
N-Facets					
Anxiety	-.21*	-.14	-.21*	-.38***	-.06
Angry Hostility	-.33***	-.04	-.10	-.34***	-.04
Depression	-.27**	-.10	-.17	-.44***	-.09
Self-Consciousness	-.16	-.05	-.11	-.34***	-.08
Impulsiveness	-.31**	-.17	-.23*	-.32**	-.07
Vulnerability	-.26*	-.22*	-.41***	-.38***	-.11

Note. Abbreviations of the table: OCW = Openness to Change at Work Scale, WCP =
Work and Career Proactivity scale, CM = Career Motivation scale, WCR = Work and
Career Resiliency scale, and WI = Work Identity scale. Scores reported in the table = *r*.
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
*** Correlation is significant at the 0.001 level (2-tailed).

The observation that many relationships exist between employability and Neuroticism, although all the relationships are negative, suggests that neurotic characteristics are hindering to one's belief that they are capable of obtaining gainful employment. Anxiety, Impulsiveness, and Vulnerability appear to be the most influential in affecting this belief. Implications of this will be discussed further in Chapter 5.

Conclusions

The results obtained from the data collected in this study revealed significant relationships between internal dispositions of employability and personality and both job satisfaction and security. Demographics gathered revealed appropriate variability of the participants included in this study regarding their gender, ethnicity/race, age, education, relational status, income, and tenure. This variability was substantiated by 2014 results for age, sex, and race according to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (2015). A limitation of these results is noted in that the majority of the participants are derived from an academic setting of higher education, potentially skewing the variability of education, income, and tenure. However, sufficient variability of these demographics was gathered to effectively represent individuals from all categories. Additionally, initial findings supported the theoretical framework of this study, revealing a positive relationship between employee satisfaction and security and tenure. This maintains the premise of Weiss, Dawis, England, and Lofquist (1967) that an employee's job satisfaction will tend to keep them at their current place of employment, while insecurity increases employee turnover rates.

Secondary results of this study ensured the compatibility of scores between the two groups. ICC measurements were taken on the total scores of all three assessments to confirm homogeneity of the scores. The ICC analyses affirmed that the scores of the

individual participants would actually explain the variance of dependent variables rather than the differences between the groups. Thus, the data from the two groups were considered homogenous and were combined to run the study's multiple regression analyses.

Third, variance of the scaled scores was considered to determine whether or not the responses varied enough to identify distinctions between high and low perceived job security and satisfaction. This was confirmed using standardized percentiles reported in the manual of the MSQ.

Fourth, multiple regression analyses were computed, identifying three variables as being influential predictors of both job security and satisfaction: DME total score of employability, work and career resiliency, and Neuroticism's facet of Vulnerability. The first two variables are indicated to have a positive relationship with job security and satisfaction, while the latter variable showed a negative influence on both.

Finally, correlation matrices were produced to identify relationships between the employability dispositions and personality traits/facets. These computations revealed many significant relationships, suggesting that characteristics of Conscientiousness are important for developing a perception of employability, while characteristics of Neuroticism hinder this perceptual development. Implications and conclusions about these results will be discussed next. Furthermore, recommendations on future research will be put forth.

Chapter 5: Conclusion

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to identify internal attributes that significantly influence perceived job security and satisfaction. Instability in the economy and changes in employment trends encourage individuals to enhance characteristics that will further develop their resiliency to external stressors (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 2010; Hankins, 2012; Renfro-Michel, Burlew, & Robert, 2009). The attributes evaluated in this study included facets of Conscientiousness and Neuroticism as well as dispositions of employability. Due to limited participants and to minimize variables, facets of Extroversion, Agreeableness, and Openness were not included. Also, participants were limited to two companies willing to become involved in this study. This restricted the types of occupations included. Also, as the majority of the participants came from an academic setting, education levels and income are likely skewed from the general population. The results were limited to self-report measures, relying on the honesty and insight of the participants. Including an additional company in these results might have allowed for greater diversity. Also, an observer-reported measure might have elucidated different results. However, these options were not available, nor were they considered necessary for this study. The ensuing results of this study, based on available participants and self-report measures, still revealed significant predictors of job satisfaction and perceived security. These findings also elucidated understanding on the topic of work perceptions, eliciting social implications and future recommendations.

Summary of Results

Two organizations were approached to provide participants. Fifty-two invitations to participate were sent to employees in the corporate setting; 448 invitations were sent to full-time employees of an academic setting. From these invitations, 26 responses to voluntarily participate were received from the corporate organization and 74 were received from the academic setting. Of the 100 surveys emailed to participants, 96 were completed. Demographics of these surveys showed diversity in gender, age, race/ethnicity, education, income, relational status, and tenure.

Significant relationships between tenure and both job security and satisfaction were found, supporting the premises of TWA and PEC as theoretical foundations of this study (Weiss et al., 1967). Furthermore, this finding was consistent with previous research on job security and satisfaction (Lyons & O'Brien, 2006; Natarajan & Nagar, 2011; Renfro-Michel, Burlew, & Robert, 2009). Another expected relationship was substantially confirmed between overall job satisfaction and perceived job security.

Computations were also run to substantiate the viability of the results obtained from participants. These results consisted of a total of 22 scaled scores including five categorical scores—(a) General Satisfaction total, (b) Security, (c) DME total, (d) Conscientiousness total, and (e) Neuroticism total—as well as the 17 independent variables: five dispositions of employability, six facets of Conscientiousness, and six facets of Neuroticism. The categorical scores had ranges varying from 18 on a scale of 5-25 to 71 on a scale of 20-100, while the independent variables' ranges spread between 7 on a scale of 3-15 and 58 on a subscale of 48 questions. Once sufficient variability was established, intraclass correlations were derived on the four total scores to ensure that the

scores of the two groups could be combined. The results of the four ICCs (ranging from

.18 to -.23) supported the conclusion that no or little relationship existed between the

groups, indicating that the variance of scores was explained by the individual responses

of the participants (Bartko, 1976; Taylor, 2010). Therefore, all measures to ensure

viability of scores for use in answering the three research questions supported progressing

with this study.

　　　　The first research question sought to identify personal attributes that might

significantly predict job security. The second research question sought to identify

personal attributes that might significantly predict job satisfaction. Multiple regression

analyses computed to answer these questions revealed similar results, showing DME

total, Work and Career Resiliency, and the Neuroticism facet of Vulnerability to be

significant predictors of perceived job security. These three variables were also the only

significant predictors of job satisfaction out of the attributes examined in this study. The

third research question intended to identify relationships between employability

dispositions and personality facets. A correlation matrix indicated strong positive

relationships between DME total and both General Satisfaction and Security. This is

contradictory to a finding by De Cuyper et al. (2009) that employability was negatively

related to job satisfaction in all groups of workers assessed. Also, Neuroticism total was

negatively related to DME total and positively related to Conscientiousness total. These

relationships suggest that the characteristics that make up employability potentially

mediate negative circumstances, enabling an individual to maintain higher job

satisfaction and security. Furthermore, characteristics of Neuroticism seem to hinder

employees' perceptions of their working environment. However, these emotional

intensities associated with Neuroticism tend to enhance awareness of their obligations, organization, and need to be successful; while this awareness (Conscientiousness) had no significant relationship to job satisfaction or security.

Another correlation matrix narrowed down the characteristics of employability, Conscientiousness, and Neuroticism that seemed to influence one another. This computation found that while a relationship did not exist between overall Conscientiousness and employability, dispositions that characterize these traits did have a significant relationship. First, Competence, a person's belief of his or her abilities, and Achievement Striving, a person's drive to be successful and acquire a status of recognition, were positively related to Work and Career Proactivity and Career Motivation. Dutifulness was also related to Career Motivation. This supports the assertion made by Wille et al. (2012) that Conscientiousness is mutually influenced by an individual's drive to gain success and personal mastery at work. Lastly, Achievement Striving was also related to Work Identity, as was the Conscientiousness facet of Dutifulness. This implies that those with a strong awareness of their career goals also have a high sense of responsibility and determination to succeed in their jobs.

Finally, as expected, many Neuroticism traits were negatively related to dispositions of employability. The employability trait of Openness to Change at work seems to be influenced by Anxiety, Angry Hostility, Depression, Impulsiveness, and Vulnerability. Three of these same traits negatively impacted Career Motivation as well: Anxiety, Impulsiveness, and Vulnerability. Vulnerability, furthermore, was negatively related to Work and Career Proactivity. Bozionelos (2004) had previously determined that Neuroticism is associated with negative work attitudes, specifically contrary to an

attitude of openness that is often associated with an employee's work involvement.

Lastly, Work and Career Resiliency, the most influential predictor of job satisfaction and

security found in this study, was negatively related to all six facets of Neuroticism:

Anxiety, Angry Hostility, Depression, Self-Consciousness, Impulsiveness, and

Vulnerability. Thus, the negative emotions accompanying Neuroticism appear to hinder

a person's motivation to achieve, seek opportunities, and cope with stressors in the work

environment. These results indicated that the null hypothesis for Hypotheses 1, 3, 4, 6, 7,

and 8 were rejected, but the null hypothesis for Hypotheses 2 and 5 were accepted.

The results of this study are in line with past research. For example, tenure was

expected to be related to job satisfaction (Bretz & Judge, 1994), and job satisfaction was

expected to be related to job security (De Cuyper et al. 2009; Reisel et al., 2007).

Furthermore, Neuroticism's negative relationship to job security and satisfaction was

previously identified (Holland, 1996). Also, employability had previously been found to

be related to job security (Wittekind et al., 2010) and satisfaction (Silla et al., 2009), and

Resiliency was a known moderator of job security (Wanberg & Banas, 2000). Some

outcomes were unexpected, however, such as neither Conscientiousness, nor any of its

facets, nor Work and Career Proactivity predicting job satisfaction or security. Bruk-Lee

et al. (2009) found Conscientiousness to have the strongest relationship out of the big five

traits, and Li et al. (2010) found Proactivity to be positively related to job satisfaction.

Still, many findings were validating to the hypotheses of this study. Also, the results

derived significant findings that are important for practical application.

Social Change Implications

Emotional duress seems to be a significant obstacle to enjoying and advancing one's career. The uncertainty that remains unexplained by findings of this study is whether the emotional distress is evoked by a negative work environment or is, in itself, decreasing one's sense of security and satisfaction. The two variables might also be influencing each other, resulting in a negative feedback cycle. However, past research indicated that characteristics of psychological hardiness mediated the effects of a negative work environment on an employee's emotions (De Cuyper, 2008). The results of this study also imply that psychological hardiness tends to produce more positive feelings toward one's job. Fugate and Kinicki (2008) identified Work and Career Resiliency with cognitive adaptation, suggesting that this disposition is largely affected by the way one thinks rather than feels. However, the idea that one's cognitions affect one's emotional state is well supported in research. McEvoy, Moulds, and Mahoney (2014) determined that repetitive negative thinking is related to negative emotions; Trezise and Reeve (2014) asserted that negative emotions reduced working memory abilities, affecting problem-solving skills; Opitz et al. (2014) discovered that fluid cognitive abilities are resources necessary to emotional regulation. Therefore, reframing one's cognitive perspectives about one's employment might also improve one's emotional state regarding it. However, developing awareness of one's emotions would be essential as well, as the reframing of these perspectives is likely to be hindered by one's propensity to have neurotic characteristics.

The social implications of this study are potentially more positive than originally thought. I had greater expectations that personality attributes would be more predictive

of perceived job security and satisfaction. The concern of this was that personality attributes are relatively permanent, although the hope was to affect the behaviors that influence individual facets of these traits. However, while the results provided fewer dispositions to predict job satisfaction and security than expected, they did produce greater hope for changing negative perspectives regarding these. Characteristics of employability are more easily taught and altered than personality. Furthermore, although Neuroticism was negatively related to job satisfaction and security, only the specific facet of Vulnerability evidenced as a significant predictor. Other Neuroticism facets were actually necessary for enhancing characteristics of Conscientiousness, specifically Competence, Dutifulness, and Achievement Striving. These same Conscientiousness facets enhanced other dispositions of employability. Therefore, a conclusion can be drawn that one does not necessarily want to decrease a person's neurotic characteristics, but rather minimize perceptions of vulnerability through awareness and regulation of the person's emotions. Thus, a significant conclusion of this study is that rather than behavioral modification, cognitive adaptation and emotional regulation skills are likely more effective at influencing job-related perceptions.

Many methods have proven effective in altering cognitions and regulating emotions. For example, cognitive reappraisal has been found to enhance the executive function of working memory (Andreotti et al., 2013), an ability previously noted as important to resiliency factors. Andreotti et al. (2013) also identified cognitive reappraisal as a significant predictor of positive affect responses. Ray, McRae, Ochsner, and Gross (2010) discovered similar results, adding that cognitive reappraisal tends to permit an individual to both alter negative affect and evoke negative affect at will.

Another strategy suggested for altering cognitive patterns and uncontrolled emotions is

mindfulness training. Mindfulness training emphasizes the use of not only cognitive

strategies, but also experiential strategies for detaching from situations; this was indicated

to not only effectively regulate emotions, but also have a greater effect on interactional

behaviors (Grecucci et al., 2015). Finally, a concept prominent in literature on enhancing

resiliency and emotional regulation is emotional intelligence (EI). EI has become more

recognized in business practices, using trainings to develop employee awareness and

managerial leadership (Callahan, 2008). EI also seems to be an important variable to

success in the workplace, as it is positively related to psychological well-being, income,

and socioeconomic status (Côté, Gyurak, & Levenson, 2010). However, research

conducted in the work environment involved implementing and monitoring various

methods mentioned here. This has indicated that the use of multiple strategies is most

effective. For example, Thory (2013) asserted that workers who used strategies to

enhance their awareness, detach their attention from negativity, alter cognitions, and

modulate their emotional state were better able to cope with interpersonal interactions,

organizational change, and work overload.

Therefore, findings of this study support the notion that employees should

increase their Work and Career Resiliency and reduce their Vulnerability to stress for the

purpose of improving their job satisfaction and perception of security. Work and Career

Resiliency is largely associated with psychological hardiness, while Vulnerability is

minimized via emotional regulation. Thus, by enhancing these coping mechanisms,

employees may have an option for controlling an aspect of their working condition, rather

than perceiving themselves as leaves buffeted by the winds of economic uncertainty and business policy.

Recommendations

The results of this study encourage action from what was discovered. These actions could be implemented by employees concerned about their current state of satisfaction and security, employers hoping to improve employee productivity and engagement, and future researchers looking to advance knowledge on this topic.

First, employees of large organizations, who often feel overlooked as individuals, can be assured that their emotional and mental state is within their locus of control. Many books, motivational conferences, and online programs are available to individuals for enhancing the coping skills that constitute resiliency and emotional regulation. Psychological hardiness seems to be a significant internal attribute associated with resiliency, emotional regulation, and locus of control (Park et al., 2011). Employees who wish to improve this coping mechanism should attend to methods of increasing optimism, solution-focused cognitions, positive self-evaluations, and self-efficacy.

Next, employers have a unique ability to implement change on a broader scale. This effort is not altruistic, as improving employee satisfaction and security enhances productivity and reduces absenteeism and turnover intention (D'Souza et al., 2006; König et al., 2011). Many assessments that are quick, easily interpreted, and relatively inexpensive can be proffered as methods of developing employee awareness. Employers can also offer trainings and continuing education on these topics, as well as access to information that enhances these characteristics. Supervisors modeling strategies will likely spend less time resolving conflict, allowing more time for strategic business

planning. Additionally, modeling of skills can potentially disseminate them to subordinate employees. Thus, if company-wide training is not feasible, educating those in supervisory roles is a reasonable first step.

Lastly, future research recommendations include suggestions on furthering knowledge in the field as well as practical application. Research recommendations include looking at different variables, further expanding on personality traits, changing the statistical computations used on the data for greater understanding of the significant relationships, implementing trainings in the work environment, and looking at satisfaction as multidimensional. First, results of this study left considerable variance in satisfaction and security unexplained. Research on additional variables that might be predictors is important for enhancing knowledge in this area. Self-efficacy, locus of control, and self-esteem are possible predictors of job satisfaction as they relate to core self-evaluations and emotional stability (Bono & Judge, 2003). Organizational commitment and engagement are also current topics of interest in regard to job satisfaction and performance (Cheng & Chan, 2008; Munir et al., 2013). Finally, in addition to internal attributes, some support exists that demographics, such as education and experience (Kardam & Rangnekar, 2012), salary levels (Seibert & Kraimer, 2001), age (Wittekind et al., 2010), and gender (Kinnunen, Mauno, Nätti, & Happonen, 1999) might affect job satisfaction and security.

Second, this study was limited in the personality facets explored. While I only identified one predictive facet of personality, others are likely significant. Past research is too consistent in the finding that larger personality traits affect job perceptions (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Bipp, 2010; Bono & Judge, 2003). As I did not include in this study

facets of Extroversion, Agreeableness, and Openness, these might be considerations of future research. Ayan and Kocacik (2010) found that extroverts tended to be more satisfied than introverts. Thus, Extroversion is a possible predictive variable. Also, Templer (2012) found that Extroversion and Agreeableness were both significant to job satisfaction, and Zhai (2012) insisted that Extroversion was most influential of the big five to job satisfaction. Therefore, analyses should be run on Extroversion and Agreeableness as they relate to job satisfaction and security, rather than only focusing on Conscientiousness and Neuroticism.

A third recommendation is the use of Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) to better explain inter-relational predictors of job satisfaction and security. Perhaps individual dispositions cannot explain variance in these variables, but combinations of them might be of significance. SEM is a multivariate analysis that can help to identify a path diagram, showing interactions of the relationships between variables rather than limiting analyses between a dependent and independent variables (StatSoft, 2015). SEM is still limited in that the relationships identified are assumed linear, whereas most relationships are not, but a better model fit is likely to be found than merely using multiple regression analyses.

Future research options might also involve trial studies on the effects of trainings on employee resiliency and emotional regulation. While considerable research was found on the methods for enhancing these qualities, effectiveness of them on work environment variables was limited. Social change conclusions of this study suggest the use of mindfulness meditation, cognitive reappraisal, and Emotional Intelligence to effectively cope with challenges in the work place. Thus, studies on programs to enhance these

skills in employees could be conducted to explore their effects on job satisfaction and security. Also, De Cuyper et al. (2008) believed employability reduced negative emotions rather than evoking positive ones. As employability was strongly related to job satisfaction and security, trainings for enhancing dispositions related to employability could be examined further. Other training methodologies used previously to improve working conditions include Autonomy Supportive Training (Baard et al., 2004) and Emotional Competence Training (Nelis et al., 2011), which also might be effective for improving job satisfaction and security based on the findings of this study.

Finally, P-E research asserts that employees have unique needs to be met by their careers, often influenced by personality traits (Edwards & Billsberry, 2010). The MSQ identifies 20 areas of satisfaction that were not individually evaluated in this study. Perhaps specific aspects of satisfaction are more significant to those higher in Neuroticism. As found, Neuroticism is also significant to positive work attributes such as Competence, etc. So, research that better assesses how to satisfy individuals higher in Neuroticism might prove beneficial. The various subscales of General Satisfaction could also be compared to other personality traits, employability dispositions, and even demographics to assess potential importance of some aspects of satisfaction over others.

Concluding Expressions

This study was an explorative process, looking at internal attributes as predictive influences on job perceptions. Considerable research has been conducted on person-environment fit as it relates to the work environment. Person-environment fit has emphasized the matching of individual characteristics, often personality traits, to the needs and expectations of a particular career path (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Holland,

1996). This fit is intended to best satisfy employee and employer, maintaining harmony in the working relationship and increasing the chance of tenure (Dawis & Lofquist, 1976). However, while this study supported the premise of TWA and PEC that satisfaction and security are related to tenure, personality traits were determined less predictive of these perceptions. Instead, employability and the dispositions that comprise this concept, according to Fugate and Kinicki (2008), are better predictors of employee satisfaction and security. Higher resiliency and lower vulnerability to external stress are shown to be significant aspects to controlling one's perspective of the work environment. Therefore, employees struggling with finding pleasure in their jobs, those worrying about potential loss of their job, those feeling trapped into a particular position, or those looking for options to improve their work environment should practice skills that enhance psychological hardiness. Recessions are an eventual certainty and large business practices are continually changing, requiring employees to be flexible and tolerant of their working circumstances. The average American will spend more time at work than performing any other task during the majority of their adult life (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2012). Therefore, the need to derive satisfaction from one's career will be essential for increasing general life satisfaction (Hirschi, 2011; Silla et al., 2009). While employees of large companies will likely continue to have limited control over the decisions of their employers, they can gain more control over the manner in which they cope with these decisions. This research was conducted to this end, to identify aspects over which individuals have control, those influential to their satisfaction and security; and thus, by providing practical recommendations, increase workers' internal locus of

control in an ever changing economy. Therefore, this study was a successful endeavor to

provide an opportunity for positive social change.

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Appendix A: Demographic Form

DEMOGRAPHIC FORM

8 Digit Administrative Code: _____

Is your current employment in a/an: ☐ Corporate Setting   OR   ☐ Academic Setting

If you are employed in a <u>corporate setting</u>, **in what state do you work?** _____

  Are you considered: ☐ Technical Service OR ☐ Warranty Administration OR ☐ Other

If you are employed in an <u>academic setting</u>, **are you:**   ☐ Faculty   OR   ☐ Staff

Gender:	☐ Male	**Do you currently reside in the United States**	
	☐ Female	**of America?** ☐ Yes	
	☐ Prefer not to answer	☐ No	

Ethnicity:	☐ Caucasian	**Annual**	☐ $0 - $24,999
	☐ Black/African American	**Income:**	☐ $25,000 – $49,999
	☐ Asian		☐ $50,000 – $74,999
	☐ Hispanic/Latino		☐ $75,000 – $99,999
	☐ American Indian/Alaskan Native		☐ $100,000 – $149,999
	☐ Two or more ethnicities		☐ $150,000 or more
	☐ Prefer not to answer		☐ Prefer not to answer

Age:	☐ 18 – 24	**Type of**	☐ Supervisor/Managerial
	☐ 25 – 34	**Position:**	☐ Engineering/Architecture
	☐ 35 – 44		☐ Sales and Related
	☐ 45 – 54		☐ Computer Science
	☐ 55 – 64		☐ Maintenance/Repair
	☐ 65 +		☐ Administrative Support
	☐ Prefer not to answer		☐ Production
			☐ Higher Education Faculty
Education:	☐ HS Diploma or Equivalent		☐ Other: _____
(Select the	☐ Vocational/Certification School		
Highest)	☐ Some College	**Years w/**	☐ 0 – 1 year
	☐ Bachelor's Degree	**Current**	☐ 2 – 5 years
	☐ Master's Degree	**Company:**	☐ 6 – 10 years
	☐ Doctoral Degree		☐ 10 – 15 years
	☐ Prefer not to answer		☐ 15 – 20 years
			☐ 20 – 25 years
			☐ 25 + years

☐ Prefer not to answer

Current   ☐ Single
Marital Status: ☐ Married
             ☐ Separated   **Reason for**   ☐ Voluntary Resignation
             ☐ Divorced   **Last Job**   ☐ Laid Off (due to downsizing)
             ☐ Widowed   **Change:**   ☐ Involuntarily Let Go
             ☐ Prefer not to answer   ☐ Prefer not to answer

INFORMED CONSENT
RE: RESEARCH FOR DISSERTATION STUDY WITH
WALDEN UNIVERSITY

You are invited to take part in a research study of Shelly Rogers-Sharer, MA, LPC-S, a student in the Ph.D. of Counseling Psychology program at Walden University.

This Informed Consent Form has two parts:
- Information Sheet (to share information about the research with you)
- Certificate of Consent (confirmed agreement if you decide to participate)

PART I: Information Sheet

Introduction

My name is Shelly Rogers-Sharer, and I am conducting this research for my dissertation as partial requirement for obtaining my Ph.D. in Counseling Psychology. I am inviting full-time employees of large organizations who live in the United States of America to participate in the study. This form is part of a process called "informed consent" to provide you the information about this study before deciding whether or not to take part. Please be assured that I will be available to explain any aspect of this informed consent or the process of my study about which you may have further questions.

Purpose of the Research

Job insecurity is a problem facing many employees in the corporate world. The turmoil of the economy and the pressing urgency for companies to have greater profit and productivity can cause strain on the employees who work for these companies. This study will assess perceived job insecurity and satisfaction of United States employees. The purpose is to explore employee attributes, specifically their personality traits and employability characteristics, which might reduce insecurity and increase satisfaction.

Participant Selection

Past research has shown that employees in large companies/organizations (over 500 employees) are likely to experience job insecurity sometime during their career. Also, over half of the United States' population is employed by a company/organization with over 500 employees. Therefore, the employees of such are sought for this research as actual representatives of the American working population. Your company/organization was selected as a willing contributor to this study.

Voluntary Participation

Participation in this study is voluntary. Your decision will be respected by both those in your company and the researcher. If you decide to participate in the study, you can still change your mind later. You may stop or withdraw at any time. Participation or refusal to participate will not affect your standing with your company or alter your current employment status.

Procedures and Protocol

Upon agreement to voluntary participation, you will be emailed an 8 digit administrative number to help protect your confidentiality. You will also be provided two links and passwords to complete the surveys needed for this study. Three surveys will be administered online through Survey Monkey. The fourth survey will be administered through Par, Inc.'s web portal for online testing, iConnect.

One survey will ask you questions about personal information such as age, education, income level, etc. The second survey will ask you questions about your satisfaction levels regarding job security, supervisors, work status, job tasks, etc. The third survey will ask you questions about your tendencies to actively seek out job opportunities, to be resilient during occupational changes, and to be motived in advancing your career. The fourth survey identifies personality traits and facets; it will ask you questions about personal preferences and tendencies to be conscientious, orderly, emotional, etc.

These four assessments should take between an hour to an hour and fifteen minutes to complete. The individual results of these assessments will be kept confidential by the researcher and will not be provided to the companies of your employment. However, overall results and findings specific to locations/divisions/departments of your company will be provided.

Risks and Benefits

Being in this study is not expected to pose a risk to your safety or wellbeing. However, answering questions about the current situation of your mood and employment can bring difficult thoughts or feeling to the surface and present some discomfort. Should this result, you may contact your human resources department about potential counseling services available through your insurance or EAP program.

Benefits of this study will depend on the results obtained. The results are intended to inform employees and their employers of characteristics that could enhance job security and/or satisfaction. However, be mindful that the results of this study may not elucidate any characteristics that positively affect these work environment factors. Regardless, the findings would be reported and provide valuable insights into contributing variables of the work environment.

Compensation

Each voluntary participant will be given a token of appreciation for their time. Once a participant has completed all four of the assessments, a $10 gift certificate will be emailed to them. The gift certificate is printable and can be used at a variety of national chain, retail stores.

Confidentiality

Each participating employee will be assigned an 8 digit administrative number. The results of these assessments will be maintained in a database according to their assigned number, separate from a record identifying their name to their assigned number.

Individual results of all assessments will only be sent to the Researcher. The researcher will not include your name or anything else that could identify you in the outcome reports provided at the conclusion of the study. Data will be kept secure by encryption and passwords on a private computer. Data will be backed-up on an external hard drive, secured in a safe. Data will be kept for a minimum of 5 years, as required by the university.

Sharing the Results

The knowledge that I get from doing this research will be shared with you through company emails and/or meetings before it is made widely available to the public. Confidential information will not be shared. You may ask questions of the researcher concerning the results of this study. After findings have been released to participants and their respective companies, I will use the results to complete my dissertation and potentially submit for further publication in order that other interested people may learn from my research.

Contacts and Questions:

You may ask any questions you have now. Or if you have questions later, you may contact the researcher via email at shelly.rogers-sharer@waldenu.edu. This proposal has been reviewed and approved by the IRB of Walden University, which is a committee whose task it is to make sure that research participants are protected from harm. If you want to talk privately about your rights as a participant, you can call Dr. Leilani Endicott. She is the Walden University representative who can discuss this with you. Her phone number is 612-312-1210. Walden University's approval number for this study is **10-03-14-0243373,** and it expires on **October 2, 2015.**

Please print or save this consent form for your records.

(If you choose to participate in this study, please follow the instructions in Part II below.)
PART II: Certificate of Consent

I have read the foregoing information. I have had the opportunity to ask questions about it and any questions that I have asked have been answered to my satisfaction. I feel I have been informed sufficiently to make a decision about my involvement and I consent voluntarily to participate in this research.

If you agree with the above statement as a potential **participant**, please reply to this email with the words:

"I, [insert your name], an employee of, [insert the name of your company], consent to voluntarily participate in the research study of Shelly Rogers-Sharer as outlined in the provided informed consent."

Once the email of your consent is received, a link with your personal 8 digit administrative code and the 2 links for the surveys will be emailed directly to you.

This has been approved by the
Institutional Review Board of
WALDEN UNIVERSITY
as acceptable documentation of the
informed consent process and is valid
for one year after the stamped date.

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Appendix C: Nondisclosure Agreements

Non-Disclosure Agreement
Re: Data Collection and Research Ventures

THIS AGREEMENT is made and effective on the 15 day of June , 20 14 by and between ███████████ (the "Company") and Shelly Rogers-Sharer (the "Researcher"). This Agreement is for the purpose of establishing the rights, duties, and responsibilities of the Company and the Researcher.

NOW, THEREFORE, in consideration of the mutual promises contained herein, the parties agree as follows:

COMPANY DUTIES AND RESPONSIBILITIES:
1. The Company shall permit an email to be sent to its employees, the extent of which determined by the Company, defining the nature of the study and requesting participation in the study of the Researcher.
2. The Company shall permit each volunteering participant employee to initially agree to the informed consent (which will be attached to the request email described above) by emailing the Researcher of their voluntary consent.
3. The Company permits each volunteering participant who returns the informed consent via email to complete the following: a) a demographic survey, b) the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire, c) the NEO Personality Inventory 3, and d) the Dispositional Measure of Employability.
4. The Company recognizes that the Researcher is not responsible for compensation of its employees' time, whether they complete the surveys during working hours or on their own time.
5. The Company will permit the Researcher to use the resulting data to complete the dissertation requirements of a PhD in Counseling Psychology.
6. The Company has the right to refuse any offer of publication that uses the information gathered from the Company and/or its employees.
7. If not otherwise rejected pursuant to #6 above, the Company will permit the Researcher to use the resulting data for publication at the Researcher's discretion, on the condition that both the company and individual results of its employees remain confidential.

RESEARCHER DUTIES AND RESPONSIBILITIES:
1. The Researcher will provide a request email with the informed consent attached to be disseminated to Company employees at the Company's discretion.
2. The Researcher will provide all assessments via an online delivery system.
3. The Researcher will provide an administrative 8 digit identification code along with the survey links to each volunteering participant. The code is intended to help protect the identity of the individual employees as they submit their surveys
4. The Researcher will ensure the demographic survey includes identification of the location, department, division of the company, etc. of the participating employees as requested by the Company to obtain results specific to these categories, to the extent that individual employee results remain confidential.
5. The Researcher will process the data collected from the Company and provide the following results:
   a. The statistical data on the effects of the 12 personality facets and 5 dispositions of employability being studied on job security and satisfaction (submitted in the finding summaries mentioned in the following points).
   b. A comprehensive finding summary of the results for the entire study.
   c. Finding summaries, specific to the Company and any locations/divisions/departments of the Company's choosing.

Non-Disclosure Agreement
Re: Data Collection and Research Ventures

     d. Individual results specific to the participating employee, only at his/her request, as identified via their personal 8 digit administrative number.

6. The Researcher is responsible for any cost associated with purchasing, administering, and analyzing the assessments used in this study.

7. The Researcher will maintain a copy of the data collection results in a locked safe for a minimum period of 5 years.

8. The Researcher will keep the results of the individual participants confidential, not releasing these individual results to any person, company, or third party at any time.

9. The Researcher will report accurate and unbiased findings to the Company and within any paper or publication written by the Researcher.

10. The Researcher will inform the Company of any publication submissions that use the information obtained from the data gathered from the Company and/or its employees prior to publication for the purpose that the Company may exert the right to refuse said publication.

11. If publication is not otherwise refused pursuant to #10 above, the Researcher will report and/or publish findings in a manner to maintain the confidentiality of both the Company and its employees.

12. The Researcher will not report and/or publish findings in any manner which identifies the Company and/or its employees, without the express prior written consent of the Company and/or its employees.

13. The Researcher agrees that in the event of any breach of the Researcher's Duties and Responsibilities, including the actual or threatened disclosure of confidential information or unauthorized publication of data, the Company will suffer irreparable harm and injury, such that no remedy at law will afford it adequate protection against, or appropriate compensation for, such harm and injury. Accordingly, the Researcher hereby agrees that the Company will be entitled to specific performance of the Researcher's duties and obligations under this Agreement, as well as such other further relief as may be granted by a court of competent jurisdiction, including, but not limited to, preliminary or permanent injunctive relief.

ENTIRE AGREEMENT AND OTHER TERMS:

     This Agreement sets forth the entire agreement and understanding of the parties relating to the subject matter herein and supersedes any prior discussion or agreements between them. No modification of or amendment to this Agreement, nor any waiver of rights under this Agreement shall be effective unless in writing as a stated addendum or change to specified agreement, and signed by the Researcher and the Company.

     If any provision in this Agreement is held by a court of competent jurisdiction to be invalid, void, or unenforceable, the remaining provisions will remain in full force and effect, as if this Agreement had been executed without any invalid provisions having been included.

SIGNATURES:

Shelly Leigh Rogers-Sharer
Researcher Printed Name
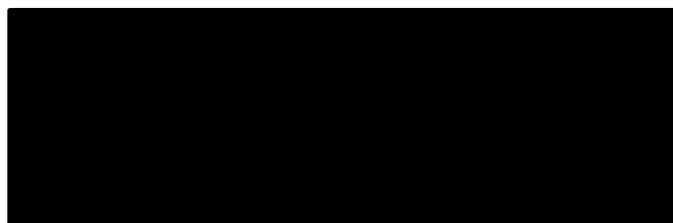
Ms. Shelly Rogers-Sharer
College of Psychology
Walden University

May 20, 2014

Dear Shelly:

We have received your email of May 16, 2014, of this year regarding the academic research project you
are undertaking. We understand that you are in the process of obtaining permission through Walden
University's research approval process. This letter serves as your formal notification that we are
approving your request to regarding research at █████████████████████

The Human Resources office will prepare an electronic list of the information that you have requested
for the purposes of the study. Once you have collected and analyzed the data, we expect that you will
share the findings of your study in an appropriate manner with the███████████████████
administration.

Our chief concern throughout this process is the protection of our employee's privacy. We grant you
this permission with the confidence that you will undertake all reasonable steps to maintain the privacy
of your survey subjects.

Sincerely,
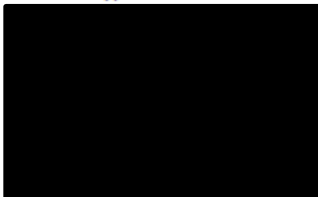
Appendix D: Permissions to Use Assessments

Correspondence with Dr. Fugate

Subject: RE: Dispositional Measure of Employability
From: "Fugate, Mel" ▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮>
Date: Mon, Mar 18, 2013 9:56 am
To: Shelly Rogers-Sharer <▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮>

Hello Shelly,
I am very sorry for the long delay, but I was away from the office and purposefully
unplugged. That said, I'm flattered that you would like to use my work/scale. The only
thing that I ask is that you share your results with me, as I hope to collect data using the
scale for future work (e.g., additional validation studies). If I can help in some way, then
let me know. Please keep me posted and good luck!
Mel

Mel Fugate, PhD
Associate Professor and Dunlevy Fellow
Management and Organizations Department Cox School of Business
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From: Shelly Rogers-Sharer [▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮]
Sent: Friday, March 08, 2013 12:41 PM
To: Fugate, Mel
Subject: Dispositional Measure of Employability

Dear Dr. Fugate:
I am a PhD student with Walden University in the process of writing my
dissertation. My topic is Dispositional Attributes that Mitigate Perceived Job Insecurity:
Improving Job Satisfaction and Performance. I am focusing on two areas of personal
disposition: Big Five personality facets and employability dimensions, identifying those
dispositional attributes which indicate moderation of the negative effects of job insecurity
on job satisfaction and performance. I will be utilizing a multiple regression to determine
variable combinations that might be more effective moderators as well as potential
interrelatedness of the variables. I would very much like to use your Dispositional

Measure of Employability to conduct my study, implementing your identified dispositions of employability as my research variables on employability dimensions. May I have your permission to use the DME assessment tool for my research? If you give permission, what further steps are required? Thank you very sincerely for your time and consideration of this request.
Best Regards,
Shelly Rogers-Sharer, M.A., Ph.D. Student
Walden University

Correspondence with University of Minnesota: Vocational Psychology Research

On Mon, Oct, 7, 2013, Vocational Psychology Research ▉▉▉▉▉ wrote:

Hello Ms. Rogers-Sharer,
You are welcome to administer the assessments using your own secure online site. We would request royalties of $.20 per participant for each assessment using this format, but you would not need to pay for the paper forms or for shipping.
Please let me know if you have any additional questions.
Best,
Vocational Psychology Research

On Mon, Oct 7, 2013 at 9:42 AM, Shelly Rogers-Sharer < ▉▉▉▉▉▉▉▉▉ >
wrote:

Dear University of Minnesota Vocational Psychology Research Department:
I am conducting a study for my dissertation and will be using the MSS and MSQ to determine employee satisfaction and satisfactoriness. My dissertation chair will be supervising the use of these instruments and upon ordering them I will complete the qualifications form. However, I am reaching the point of gathering data and am obtaining agreements from two Fortune 500 companies. They have requested that assessments I use be made available electronically. My current understanding is that the MSQ and MSS are available on paper only. I recognize the need to pay for each administration of these assessments, however, is there any way to get permission to administer these 2 assessments electronically? Do you already have a way to do this? Or can I obtain permission to do so? I appreciate any guidance on this matter. Please feel free to reply to this email address or contact me at ▉▉▉▉▉▉.
Very sincerely,
Shelly Rogers-Sharer
PhD Student in Counseling Psychology
Walden University