LOW TEE HWA JASMINE

EMPLOYABILITY AND JOB INSECURITY:

SUPPORTING INDIVIDUALS TO ACHIEVE CAREER SUCCESS IN THE WHITEWATER WORK ENVIRONMENT

TESIS DOCTORAL

Universitat de Valencía
Programa de Doctorado en Psicología de Los Recursos Humanos
Dirigida por Profesor José Ramos López

UNIVERSITAT DE VALENCÍA, SPAIN | SEPT 2019

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Led by advancement in technology and together with globalization, the pace of today's fourth industrial revolution is reshaping the economy, business landscape, and the nature of work faster than before. As organizations constantly embrace new technology to enhance productivity and competitiveness, new jobs emerge while some undergo transformation or are threatened by redundancy. Analysts forecasted technological advancement to eliminate up to 50% of current jobs towards the year 2030 and at a pace much faster than the previous industrial revolutions. (Frey & Osborne, 2017; OECD, 2017; World Economic Forum, 2018). Job lost to automation is expected to induce structural unemployment, increase 'gig'/piecemeal work arrangements and spur labor market polarization – i.e. an hourglass job market with strong demands at the high (high skill/high pay) and low ends (low skill/low pay) (OECD, 2017; World Economic Forum, 2018). In addition to possible job displacements, the intensified global competition also calls for organizations to be agile, responsive and relevant. As a result, organizational changes became pervasive and job insecurity increases (Bimrose, Barnes, & Hughes, 2008). The rapid pace of technology advancement, global economic instability, and pervasive organizational changes transformed the world of work into a highly dynamic and turbulent environment, figuratively described as a 'whitewater' environment (Savickas, 2008, 2013). In such an environment, individuals more than before, need to take proactive approaches to manage and develop their career, constantly up-skill, be adaptable to changes and to constantly cope with work-related changes, stress, and challenges.

Setting the Scene

The contemporary labor market bears a few characteristics such as polarization, economic instability, technology assimilation, and labor force shrinkage (due to retiring baby boomer generation). Among all, a key labor market characteristic of focus in this research is the inherent job insecurity induced by the interactions of the various forces mentioned (Chung & Mau, 2014; Erlinghagen, 2007). This section presents a brief introduction to job insecurity in order to set the scene for the research.

Job insecurity

Job insecurity is defined as the prolonged experience of uncertainty about the continuance and stability of one's present job (Shoss, 2017). It includes the fear of losing the current job and becoming unemployed – quantitative job insecurity, and losing roles and responsibilities at work, or being assigned less desirable work position – qualitative job insecurity (Johnny Hellgren, Sverke, & Isaksson, 1999; Kang, Gold, & Kim, 2012). Job insecurity is a perceptual phenomenon and has a particular resonance in today's labor market due to economic changes, rapid technological advancements, and global market competitiveness. The relationship between job insecurity and these macro-economic forces can be demonstrated by how job insecurity tend to increase when national unemployment rates increases (Anderson & Pontusson, 2007) or when the economy downslides (De Weerdt, De Witte, Catellani, & Milesi, 2004). Economic instability, rapid technological advancement, and global market competitiveness are considerable forces because the interaction of these forces reshapes market demands, nature of work and impels organizations to change. At the organizational level, the organization's performance, organizational change and plans to change can serve as an indication of a possible risk of job loss and have been associated with an increase in the experience of job insecurity (Debus, König, & Kleinmann, 2014; Ellonen & Nätti, 2015). Organizational changes can be further prompted by economic instability, globalization, and the intense global market competition. To be profitable and sustainable in the competitive market and during harsh economic conditions, organizations undertake measures such as restructuring, downsizing, outsourcing and offshoring to reduce overheads and to be competitive, relevant and agile (Reisel, Chia, Maloles, & Slocum, 2007). Such changes make employees uncertain about the future existence of their job (G. F. Davis, 2009; Hirsch & Soucey, 2006). In addition, the adoption of technology to enhance organizational productive capability also signals possible changes in job roles and loss of job positions, which further adds to the experience of job insecurity (L. Jiang, Probst, & Sinclair, 2013; Kalleberg, 2011; Lübke & Erlinghagen, 2014).

At a more individual level, characteristics such as age, tenure, educational attainment, employability skills and other factors that contribute to the determination of an employee's position in the organization – i.e. positional level factors, and personality traits of individuals such as negative affectivity, self-esteem and external locus of control, can also influence the experience of job insecurity (see De Witte, 2005; Shoss, 2017). The rationale is that the positional or personality factors can influence the intensity of job insecurity felt. For example, individuals with negative affectivity tend to appraise themselves and the situations from a negative point of view, hence intensifying the experience of job insecurity (De Witte, 2005). Without discounting the role of individual characteristics as a source of job insecurity, this research, however, concerns job insecurity from a macro-economic perspective. In addition, although this research does not specifically distinguish between quantitative and qualitative job insecurity, it refers mainly to quantitative job insecurity as the measures utilized focused on individual's concern about the future existence of their current job (see Chapter 5).

Job insecurity has mostly garnered attention as a stressor and has negative consequences for both individuals and the organization (e.g., Cheng & Chan, 2008; Gilboa, Shirom, Fried, & Cooper, 2008). Most of the studies pertaining to job insecurity point towards detrimental impacts to physiological and psychological well-being, job attitudes, and job performance (G. H. L. Cheng & Chan, 2008; De Witte, Pienaar, & De Cuyper, 2016; Niessen & Jimmieson, 2016; Probst, Stewart, Gruys, & Tierney, 2007). As job insecurity can be harmful and eliminating it is not possible, the development of one's ability to cope and to adapt to the rapidly changing labor market demands becomes important. For example, the UK Commission for Employment and Skills (UKCES) underscores adaptability, readiness for change and being prepared to meet future market needs as the most important characteristics required for all labor market actors (i.e., individuals, employers, training providers, and policymakers). In addition, the UKCES recommends individuals to engage more in seeking and interpreting labor market information in order to be flexible and responsive to market demands (UK Commission for Employment and Skills (UKCES), 2014). Similarly, the International Labor Office (ILO) recommends training agencies to anticipate

future skills needed, align training delivery to the changing needs in the labor market, and include technical and core skills for employability (e.g. communication, teamwork and problem-solving skills) that are portable across occupations, so that individuals can be more flexible and responsive to market demands (ILO, 2013). Literature also recommends organizations to contribute to the development of employees' employability and capability in coping with organizational changes constructively (De Witte, 2005). These recommendations in general, point towards the need for developing employability and career adaptability in individuals.

Briefly, employability (Chapter 3) is the ability to retain or obtain a job in both internal and external labor market (Forrier & Sels, 2003a; Fugate, Kinicki, & Ashforth, 2004; Hillage & Pollard, 1999). It entails individual factors that increase the likelihood to gain employment and be successful in their chosen job (Hogan, Chamorro-Premuzic, & Kaiser, 2013; McQuaid, 2006; Yorke, 2004). Career adaptability (Chapter 4) is the readiness to cope with current and anticipated career-related tasks, transitions and changes (Savickas, 2005). It is a form of proactive coping resource (Klehe, Zikic, van Vianen, Koen, & Buyken, 2012), which is future-oriented and involves the use of personal resources, goals setting, and vision realization to overcome work-related challenges (Aspinwall & Taylor, 1997; C. G. Davis & Asliturk, 2011). Employability, and recently career adaptability are recognized as concepts crucial for career success in the current and future labor market (Forrier & Sels, 2003b; Hall, 2002; Hamtiaux, Houssemand, & Vrignaud, 2013; Hogan et al., 2013; McQuaid & Lindsay, 2005; Zacher, 2014). To date, research have demonstrated that employability and career adaptability can support individuals in achieving (subjective) career success and buffer the negative consequence of job insecurity (Fiori, Bollmann, & Rossier, 2015; Green, 2011; Ohme & Zacher, 2015; Santilli, Nota, Ginevra, & Soresi, 2014; Silla, De Cuyper, Gracia, Peiró, & De Witte, 2009; Stoltz, Wolff, Monroe, Farris, & Mazahreh, 2013; Sverke, Hellgren, & Näswall, 2002).

Research Questions

The rapid pace of globalization, digitalization and economic change in the twenty-first century have not only shifted the business landscape and nature of work but also how people view and develop careers. For instance, the diminishing job security and organization-based career path triggered the notion of protean and boundaryless career where individuals rely on themselves rather than the organization for their career development and look beyond the organization for development opportunities. A protean career refers to a self-directed career management approach that is driven by one's internal values and psychological success – i.e., subjective career success (Hall, 1996), and a boundaryless career refers to a career that involves psychological and/or organizational mobility (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996). In another word, a boundaryless career goes beyond the traditional career arrangement and career path with an organization/employer; individuals move between different occupations, jobs and organizations throughout their career-track (Defillippi & Arthur, 1994; Sullivan & Arthur, 2006). In such a career environment, the concept of employability came to the foreground of career development and career success because individuals more than ever, need to be attractive and marketable to employers. As technological revolution advanced into the twenty-first century, the nature of work, changes, and job insecurity intensified; individuals need to be able to cope with pervasive changes and novel demands and be adaptable in order to achieve career success. Many scholars hence proposed career adaptability (Super & Knasel, 1981) as a key competency for career success in the current 'whitewater' world of work (Hall & Chandler, 2005; Hamtiaux et al., 2013; O'Connell, McNeely, & Hall, 2007). Despite the rising attention on the career adaptability as an element important for career success, scholars believe that employability will continue to be important as it provides individuals with competences to gain and maintain employment of preference (De Cuyper, Piccoli, Fontinha, & De Witte, 2018). However, most of the recent studies have yet to examine the role of career adaptability and employability *together*, when predicting outcomes such as career success. That is to say, the impact of the two constructs in the presence of

each other remains empirically unclear. Therefore, the first question this research would like to answer is:

Q1: "How relevant is employability despite the rising attention on career adaptability?"

Conceptually, there are some similarities between employability, particularly the psychosocial model of employability (chapter 3) and career adaptability (chapter 4). For instance, both constructs i) entails adapting oneself to the work demands or environment, ii) entails proactivity, iii) are psychosocial and person-centered constructs, and iv) are considered as psychological and career identity resources. The key similarity between the two constructs lies in the active adaptations and proactivity. For instance, Savickas (1997) describe career adaptability as the ability for individuals to proactively adjust themselves to fit the environment and to cope with work demands, while Fugate and colleagues (2004) describe the psychosocial model of employability as "a form of work specific *proactive adaptability that enable workers to identify and realize career opportunities*" (p.16). Recent studies have demonstrated that career adaptability is related to indicators of psychosocial employability, namely proactive personality (Cai et al., 2015; K. Y. Chan et al., 2015; Öncel, 2014; Tolentino et al., 2014). Proactive personality is defined as the predisposition to initiate action to change one's environment (Bateman & Crant, 1993). It entails ownership, internal locus of control, and taking actions to achieve the desired outcome, and it resonates with the concept of career adaptability (Klehe et al., 2012). For example, studies indicate that proactive individuals tend to seek career opportunities and create work environment that fit their vocational needs (Seibert, Crant, & Kraimer, 1999), take responsibility for managing their career (Hall & Mirvis, 1995), seek information (Seibert, Kraimer, & Crant, 2001) and set goals (Fugate et al., 2004). These characteristics relate to career adaptability resources of concern (planning for future development, goal setting, and action planning), control (agency and autonomy), curiosity (openness to explore alternatives and opportunities) and confidence (taking actions and self-efficacy). Considering these, there may be possibilities that the commonality between the two constructs predict career success better than it will on

its own or that one of the two constructs may perform like a subset to the other. Hence, the second question this research would like to answer is:

Q2: "What is the extent of commonality shared between employability and career adaptability?"

Recognizing that job insecurity will continue to intensify due to economic fluctuations and technology advancement (Chung & Mau, 2014; De Witte, 2005), scholars believe that employability will continue to be important (De Cuyper et al., 2018) because it can buffer the negative impacts of job insecurity on health and well-being (Briscoe, Henagan, Burton, & Murphy, 2012; De Cuyper, Notelaers, & De Witte, 2009; Silla et al., 2009). However, findings on the role of employability (namely perceived employability) and job insecurity on outcomes such as life satisfaction and well-being are rather inconsistent. For example, there are studies suggesting that job insecurity mediates (see figure 1.1a) the relationship between perceived employability and well-being (De Cuyper, Bernhard-Oettel, Berntson, De Witte, & Alarco, 2008) and studies suggesting that perceived employability moderates (see figure 1.1b) the impact of job insecurity on well-being (Silla et al., 2009). Given that economic instability have an influence on the labor market, and labor market conditions too, have an influence on job insecurity (Anderson & Pontusson, 2007; De Weerdt et al., 2004) and perceived employability (Lübke and Erlinghagen, 2014), differences in labor conditions could plausibly explain the inconsistencies observed. To better support the workforce in the current and future labor market, it is important to clarify which of the two models is more relevant in the current labor market context. However, studies that examine the impact of the labor context on competing models are at the moment, scarce. Although there exists a recent study by De Cuyper and colleagues (2018) which examined the role of job insecurity and perceived employability after the 2008 economic crisis and compared the results across two dissimilar labor context (the Mediterranean and Continental Europe), the study however does not clarify the roles of perceived employability and job insecurity in competing models. Thus, the third question this research aims to answer is:

Q3: “Which model (mediation or moderation) is more relevant in describing the role of employability and job insecurity in the current labor market context?”

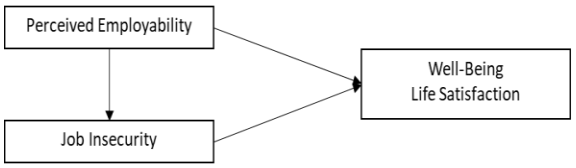

Figure 1.1a. Mediating Model

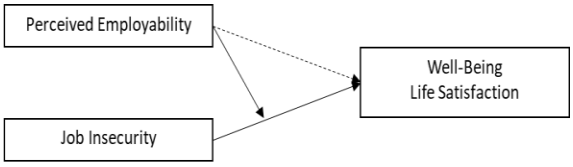

Figure 1.1b. Moderating Model

Figure 1.1. Diagrammatic representation of the competing models.

Thus far, this research may have given the impression that job insecurity is undesirable while career adaptability and employability are the opposite; this is not the case. Although job insecurity has mostly garnered attention as a stressor that is detrimental to well-being and performance (e.g., Cheng & Chan, 2008; Gilboa, Shirom, Fried, & Cooper, 2008), it may not necessarily be a hindrance stressor all the time (Cavanaugh, Boswell, Roehling, & Boudreau, 2000; Lepine, Podsakoff, & Lepine, 2005). For example, there are studies indicating that job insecurity, under certain circumstances, can create a motive to secure one’s job which leads to enhanced performance (e.g., Probst, Stewart, Gruys, & Tierney, 2007) and an increase in extra-role behavior (Fischer et al., 2005; Staufenbiel & König, 2010). There are also studies demonstrating that employees facing job insecurity going beyond what is required of them at work (i.e.extra-role behavior) when there are some transactional benefits (such as surviving the layoff) to be gained (Feather & Rauter, 2004). These findings, although a minority, suggest that the relationship between job insecurity and performance outcomes may depend on moderating variables. That is, while the experience of job insecurity may impede performance for most workers, it may prompt performance for others. Some scholars had similar observations and suggested the plausibility of employees attempting to reduce related disadvantages as much as possible until they obtain a definitive outcome. They indicate that in such cases, the perception of job insecurity might have led to

an elevated sense of self-interest and responsibility to maintain one's career (Kang et al., 2012; Peiró, Sora, & Caballer, 2012). Hence, in light of job preservation motivation (Shoss, 2017), which suggest that job insecurity motivates individuals to act in ways they believe might reduce the possibility of job loss, the fourth question this research aim to answer is:

Q4: "When does job insecurity prompt performance?"

Research Objectives

The main objective of this research is to support individuals in maintaining and achieving career success in the whitewater work environment of the twenty-first century and beyond. To achieve the objective, three studies are organized around the topics of employability, career adaptability and job insecurity on subjective career success and job performance in the current labor market. This section presents the aims of the three studies and their corresponding research questions. This section ends with a conceptual model (figure 1.2) that outlines the overall structure of the research.

Study 1:

The key objective of Study 1 is to investigate the relevance of employability to subjective career success amidst the rising attention on career adaptability in today's world of work. Study 1 intents to answer research question Q1 and Q2, which concerns the relevance of employability and the extent of commonality employability shares with career adaptability. The main premise of Study 1 is that both employability and career adaptability are related psychosocial constructs whose influence on career success do not happen remotely from each other. Two aims complete Study 1: i) to investigate the relative importance of the two constructs (employability and career adaptability) in predicting two subjective career success outcomes – job satisfaction and self-perceived job performance**,**

and ii) to investigate the commonality shared between employability and career adaptability when predicting job satisfaction and self-perceived job performance**.**

Study 2:

The key objective of Study 2 is to deepen understanding of the role of employability and job insecurity in different labor conditions, such that academics and practitioners - through research and practice can better support individuals in maintaining career success in different whitewater environments. The main assumption of Study 2 is that employability still matters in today's work environment despite the rising attention on career adaptability. Study 2 intends to answer research question Q3, which concerns the relevance of competing models (mediation or moderation), by comparing the two competing models in two different labor conditions: normal labor conditions (year 2008, i.e., slightly before the global economic crisis) and harsh labor conditions (year 2011, i.e., during the global economic crisis). The two dotted arrows in figure 1.2 represent the conflicting models; the dotted vertical arrow from perceived employability to job insecurity completes the mediation model while the diagonal dotted arrow represents the moderation model.

Study 3:

Thus far, Study 1 and Study 2 give insights into the role of employability and career adaptability on predicting subjective career success in today's labor context. However, understanding how individuals can achieve career success may not adequately support individuals and organizations in job insecure environments. Hence, Study 3 takes a side step from focusing on the impact of labor conditions and job insecurity on subjective career success to exploring behavioral responses to job insecurity, with the intent of supporting individuals to upkeep performance during challenging times. To represent the different focal target assumed in Study 3, the study is enclosed by a different box border in figure 1.2. The key objective of Study 3 is to uncover when do employees show a behavioral response to job insecurity in the form enhanced overall job performance, which comprise task and contextual performance. Task performance refers to activities that contribute to the organization's core

business productivity, while contextual performance refers to activities that contribute to organizational effectiveness by shaping the organizational, social, and psychological context (e.g., organizational citizenship behavior) (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997). Study 3 intends to answer research question Q4.

Conceptual representation of the research:

The objectives and relationships of the concepts/variables examined in the three studies of this research are presented in figure 1.2 below. Each (dotted) box corresponds to a study in the research, and the arrows reflect how the concepts/variables relate to each other empirically.

Study 1: Understanding the relevance of Employability to subjective career success amidst the rising attention on Career Adaptability in today's world of work.

Study 2: Clarifying the Role of Employability and Job Insecurity on subjective career success in different labor conditions.

Study 3: Uncovering when employees show a behavioral response to Job Insecurity in the form of enhanced overall job performance.

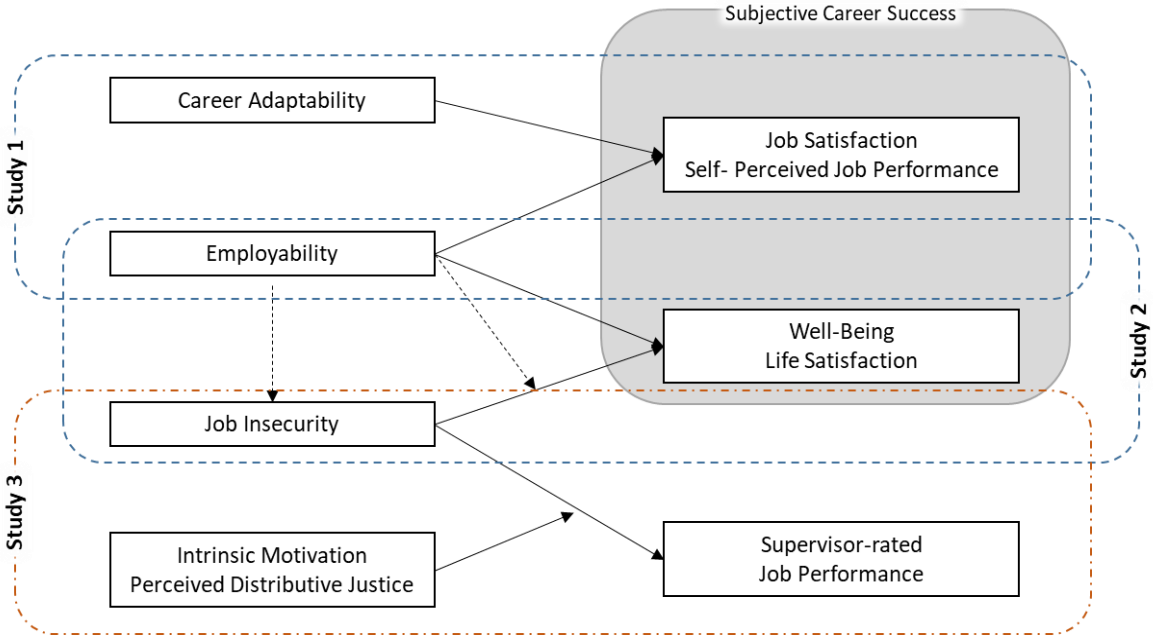

Figure 1.2. Conceptual figure describing the structure of the research.

CHAPTER TWO

JOB INSECURITY

Job insecurity is defined as the prolonged experience of uncertainty about the continuance and stability of one's present job (Shoss, 2017). It includes the fear of losing the current job and becoming unemployed – quantitative job insecurity, and losing roles and responsibilities at work, or being assigned less desirable work position – qualitative job insecurity (Johnny Hellgren et al., 1999; Kang et al., 2012). According to De Witte (1999) and Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt (1984), there are two aspects of uncertainty central to the concept of job insecurity: unpredictability and uncontrollability. Unpredictability refers to the lack of clarity about the future and expected course of actions while uncontrollability refers to the sense of powerlessness to control or counteract the situation. Because of the associated unpredictability and uncontrollability, individuals are unable to take concrete actions to safeguard their future (De Cuyper, De Jong, et al., 2008; De Witte, 2005; Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 1984; Vander Elst et al., 2014). According to Warr's (1987) 'Vitamin-model'[1], the lack of control and unpredictability (known as 'environmental clarity' in the model) leads to the deterioration of one's psychological well-being.

Job insecurity can be understood through various theoretical frameworks. For example, from the latent deprivation perspective (Johada, 1982), the insecure situation is a source of anxiety and stress partly because individuals risk losing the unique latent benefits of work such as social status and recognition, social network and opportunity to contribute to a higher purpose. According to the conservation of resource theory (COR; Hobfoll, 1989, 2002), these latent benefits of work are valuable resources that individuals strive to build, retain and protect. Psychological stress results when individuals are at risk of losing these valuable resources. From the job-demands model perspective (JDR; Bakker & Demerouti, 2007), job demands are any aspects of a job that require prolonged physical and/or psychological efforts or skills while job resources are any aspects of the job that enable individuals to complete tasks, achieve goals, continuously learn and develop. As job insecurity entails a

[1] Nine work place 'Vitamins' that boost employee well-beings: Opportunity for control, opportunity for skill use, externally generated goals, variety, environmental clarity, availability of money, physical security, opportunity for interpersonal contact, valued social position

prolonged sense of unpredictability and uncontrollability (psychological cost), which cause stress and discomfort (physiological cost), it is commonly taken as a form of job demand (De Witte, 1999; Lepine et al., 2005). When demands and resources are unbalanced, strain occurs. Job strain stemming from job insecurity can be burdensome and prolonged as the uncertainty makes it difficult for individuals to apply effective and appropriate coping strategies (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). The prolonged stress then causes strain on individuals, which depletes one's energy and reduces the ability to perform well (G. H. L. Cheng & Chan, 2008; Sverke et al., 2002).

Impacts of Job Insecurity

By integrating existing researches, Sverke, Hellgren, & Näswall (2002) put forth a heuristic model that describe four impact areas of job insecurity: Job attitudes, organizational attitudes, individual health and work-related behavior (figure 2.1). These four impact areas are formed by the intersection of the types of reaction (immediate/long-term) to job insecurity and the focus of reaction (individual/organizational).

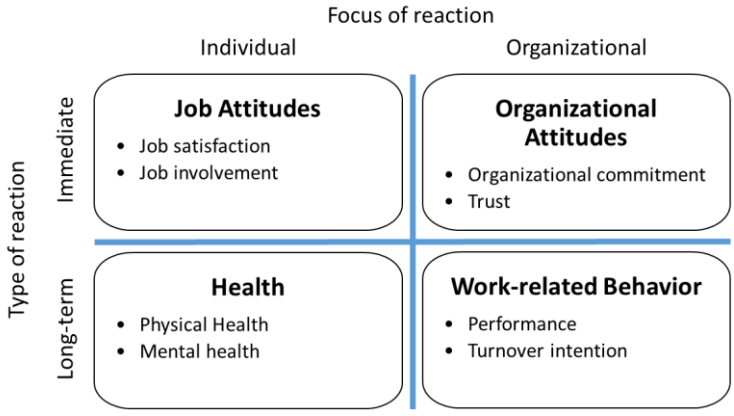

Figure 2.1. Types of consequences of job insecurity

This research covers three of the impact areas – Job attitudes, Health, and Work-related behavior. The representative job attitudes indicators used in Study 1 are job satisfaction and self-perceived job performance, which are also indicators of subjective

career success. The representative health indicators, which are also indicators of subjective career success used in Study 2, are psychological well-being and life satisfaction. The representative, work-related behavior indicator, used in Study 3 is overall job performance, which comprises task and contextual performance (specifically organizational citizenship behavior). Among the various possible indicators for Job attitudes and Health, subjective career success indicators were selected because career success is a way for individuals to fulfill their needs for achievement (Ishak, 2015) and the knowledge about career success can support individuals to develop appropriate strategies for career development (Aryee, Chay, & Tan, 1994).

Impact of Job Insecurity on Subjective Career Success

Career success is defined as positive psychological outcomes and work-related achievements at any point in a person's work experiences over time (Seibert, Kraimer, & Crant, 2001). The literature identifies two types of career success – objective career success and subjective career success. Objective career success refers to directly observable and measurable outcomes such as salary, occupational status and promotions, while subjective career success refers to individuals' perceptual evaluation of their career achievements in relation to their objectives, expectations, and prospects (Dries, Pepermans, & Carlier, 2008; Ng, Eby, Sorensen, & Feldman, 2005; Seibert, Kraimer, & Crant, 2001). This research focuses subjective rather than objective career success because i) individuals tend to conceptualize and evaluate their career success based on their own criteria (Heslin, 2005), ii) the diminishing career ladder and changing demands in the current world of work (Savickas, 2008; Shockley, Ureksoy, Rodopman, Poteat, & Dullaghan, 2016), might have reduced the significance of objective career success to individuals (Heslin, 2005; M. Wang, Olson, & Shultz, 2013), and iii) subjective career success is more important to work attitudes than objective career success (Dyke & Duxbury, 2011). In addition, the concept of subjective career success is aligned with the protean career concept in the contemporary labor market.

Protean career refers to self-directed career management where success is driven and measured by one's internal value (Briscoe & Hall, 2006). Subjective career success can be represented in various way for example career satisfaction, job satisfaction, life satisfaction, general well-being, person-job fit, etc. Indicators of subjective career success can be organized around themes relating to the quality of work or performance, relationship with others, financial goals, career advancement, life beyond work, autonomy, satisfaction, growth and learning, respect, and meaningfulness (Shockley et al., 2016). The subjective career success indicators used in this research (job satisfaction, life satisfaction, job performance, and well-being) are among the many available indicators possible.

Subjective career success is not only important to individuals but also organizations because employees tend to demonstrate positive attitudes towards work and the organization when the organization can facilitate employees in achieving career success (Dyke & Duxbury, 2011). This is because organizational contexts such as work conditions, organizational justice, and work demands, etc., can influence employees' evaluation of subjective career success in both work (such as a sense of personal accomplishment, recognition, and positive working relationship) and non-work related areas (such as work-life balance and well-being).

Job insecurity is vital to the evaluation of subjective career success because the uncertainty and unpredictability of one's career prospect, and the feeling of powerlessness to change the situation, can also affect one's feeling of self-worth, self-esteem, the quality of work, and life experience (Kinnunen, Feldt, & Mauno, 2003; Lim, 1996). The impact of job insecurity on life satisfaction and perceived job performance could be understood through the JDR theory (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007) and the COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989, 2002). Accordingly, when the continuity of one's job is threatened, employees will call upon other resources they have to manage their work task and the threat of job loss. As the extra efforts of dealing with the anxiety, stress, and uncertainty, arising from job insecurity is not an enjoyable, pleasant nor a desired part of the work, job satisfaction decreases. In fact, studies have found that employees tend to report higher job dissatisfaction when they perceive their

future employment to be insecure as compared to their counterparts' who were certain about the job loss (Ashford, Lee, & Bobko, 1989; Lim, 1996). In addition, the extra efforts to manage job insecurity may become a distraction that takes attention or desire away from performing well in one's job (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 1984).

Impact of Job Insecurity for Organizations

Along with the reasoning from the above section, the COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989, 2002) suggests that in the event of the potential loss of resources or a lack of resource gain, people tend to work towards minimizing the net loss of resources (Hobfoll, 1989, 2002). Hence, when one's job is at risk, employees might withdraw from activities that require more resources at work or engage in activities that are less resource demanding (e.g., job search, gather and side-talk to obtain social support, etc.) which results in a drop in self-perceived job performance, and job performance itself (König, Debus, Häusler, Lendenmann, & Kleinmann, 2010). It follows that when employees reduce their efforts to perform their job, effort investments on contextual performances such as organizational citizenship behavior (which entails supporting and helping colleagues) are also likely to be reduced (Kaplan, Bradley, Luchman, & Haynes, 2009; König et al., 2010). Along with this line, various studies have also identified the negative relationship between job insecurity and work-related behaviors such as turnover intentions (Lambert, Lynne Hogan, & Barton, 2001) and safety compliance (Probst & Brubaker, 2001).

Impacts of job insecurity on organizations can be minimized through sound organizational processes such as organizational support and organizational justice. Studies have shown that such processes can influence employees' perception of uncertainty and support employees in achieving (subjective) career success such as job satisfaction during challenging times (Dyke & Duxbury, 2011). For example, organizational justice has been found to reduce the impact of job insecurity on job satisfaction (Loi, Lam, & Chan, 2012; Ouyang, Sang, Li, & Peng, 2015), job performance (Colquitt, Scott, Judge, & Shaw, 2006).

Literature indicates that organizational justice can reduce employees' perception of uncertainty about the continuance of their employment by enhancing the perception of predictability and controllability (Colquitt et al., 2006; Di Fabio & Palazzeschi, 2012; Lind & van den Bos, 2002; Loi et al., 2012). Lind and Van den Bos (2002) have demonstrated that employees tend to rely on justice judgment and the fairness effect is stronger in the presence of uncertainty. The justice perception and fairness information aids in reducing uncertainty and anxiety about being excluded or exploited by the organization, which gives more predictability and controllability to the future (Colquitt et al., 2006; Lind & van den Bos, 2002). In this sense, when in situations where the continuity of one's employment is unclear, organizational justice provides a cue for employees to appraise if they are valued members of the organizations and an indication of fair treatment in the dismissal decisions (Lind, 2001; Ouyang et al., 2015).

CHAPTER THREE

EMPLOYABILITY

Against the backdrop of global economic instability and constant organizational changes, employability has a particular resonance because it concerns one's ability to make labor market transitions and to cope with the inherent job insecurity in today's world of work (Berntson, Näswall, & Sverke, 2010). For example, individuals with high employability tend to have more job alternatives and a higher potential to obtain another job; hence, they may find it easier to cope with the job insecurity (De Cuyper, Baillien, & De Witte, 2009; Forrier & Sels, 2003b). Moreover, because organizations need to maintain their competitiveness, they will tend to seek, attract and retain highly employable employees (De Cuyper et al., 2014) because employability is associated with higher human capital such as skills and knowledge, job performance, and organizational outcomes (De Cuyper, Van der Heijden, & De Witte, 2011). Therefore, in the contemporary protean and boundaryless career context where individuals are expected to manage their own career which may span across many different organizations, to be recognized as competent and to maintain one's attractiveness (i.e., employability) are among the key goals for individuals in the workforce (Jacobsson, 2004; Kang et al., 2012). A protean career refers to self-directed career management where one's internal value drives success, and boundaryless career (Briscoe & Hall, 2006) refers to careers that involve physical and/or psychological career mobility (Sullivan & Arthur, 2006).

Employability is generally defined as the ability to retain or obtain a job in both internal and external labor market (Forrier & Sels, 2003a; Fugate et al., 2004; Hillage & Pollard, 1999). Internal labor market refers to the organization where the individual is currently employed while external labor market refers to the general labor market. Therefore, internal employability refers to one's ability to remain employed in the current organization while external employability then, refers to the ability to obtain a job in another organization (Groot & De Brink, 2000). As seen from the general definition, employability in this research refers to both internal and external employability. Besides increasing the possibilities of obtaining a job, employability is important to individuals because it promotes well-being, life satisfaction, (Briscoe et al., 2012; De Cuyper, Notelaers, et al., 2009; Forrier & Sels, 2003a; Green, 2011; Silla et al., 2009), job performance (Rosenberg, Heimler, & Morote, 2012; Van Der Heijde &

Van Der Heijden, 2006) and job satisfaction (Barnett & Bradley, 2007; Gamboa, Gracia, Ripoll, & Peiró, 2009; González-Romá, Gamboa, & Peiró, 2018; Van Der Heijde & Van Der Heijden, 2006). On the contrary, scholars posit that individuals with low employability tend to be stuck in jobs that they do not like (Green, 2011). In addition, employability has been found to reduce the detrimental effect of job insecurity on various outcomes such as life happiness, life satisfaction and well-being (Green, 2011; Silla et al., 2009). Green (2011) for example, have demonstrated that an increase in employability from zero to 100% can reduce the detrimental effect of job insecurity on life satisfaction and well-being by 50% for employed individuals, especially for men.

As this research concerns job insecurity, the samples used in all the three studies of this research involved only employed individuals. Samples comprising employed individuals can be more appropriate for this research because the employed face the risk of job displacement and the uncertainty of obtaining another job of similar quality should they be laid off – i.e., job insecurity, whereas the uncertainty experienced by the unemployed concerns mainly the possibility of obtaining a job. Although attention is placed on the employed, this research does not imply that employability is not important nor beneficial to the unemployed; in fact, employability does matter for the unemployed. For instance, Green (2011) demonstrated that an increase in employability from zero to 100% could reduce the detrimental effect of unemployment by about 75% for unemployed individuals.

Conceptualizations of Employability

There are various approaches to interpreting and measuring employability. For example, the personal competences approach, an approach common among educational institutions which focuses on the development and measurement of individual capabilities (such as knowledge, skills, and attitudes) and organizational core competences (such as professional expertize) required in the labor market (J. Andrews & Higson, 2008; Van Der Heijde & Van Der Heijden, 2006; Yorke, 2004). In this sense, employability is defined as the

continuous fulfilling, acquiring or creation of work *through the optimal use of competences* (Van Der Heijde & Van Der Heijden, 2006). The main tenet of this approach lies on the resource-based view managerial framework where employees' competences are considered as valuable assets beneficial for both the employee and the organization and are necessary for sustaining organizational competitive advantage (Barney, 1991; Wright & Rohrbaugh, 1999). Rather than focusing on capabilities and competences, the dispositions approach (Fugate & Kinicki, 2008) on the other hand, focus on proactive and reactive personal characteristics, such as locus of control and career self-efficacy. In this sense, employability is defined as "a constellation of individual differences that *predispose* employees to proactively adapt to their work and career environments" (Fugate & Kinicki, 2008, p. 504). To measure dispositional employability, Fugate and Kinicki (2008) put forth a five-factor latent model comprising openness to changes at work, work and career resilience, work and career proactivity, career motivation, and work identity. The main tenet of this approach lies on the notion that employable individuals can adapt reactively to known demands and proactively prepare themselves for anticipated changes or threats in their work domains (Fugate & Kinicki, 2008). Other than focusing on competences and dispositions, the psychosocial approach to employability (Fugate et al., 2004) has an additional component – a market-interaction dimension that relates to how the individual and the labor market interacts to maintain or gain employment. This dimension is labeled 'Social and Human capital' in the psychosocial model of employability. According to Fugate et al. (2004), social capital refers to interpersonal resources such as professional or social networks that support individuals to interact and engage with the labor market, while human capital refers to factors such as knowledge, skills, attitudes, and competences, by which employers evaluate the candidate. In this approach, dispositions are subsumed in the dimension of personal adaptability as both conceptualizations concern the promotion of work-specific proactive adaptability. The third dimension of the psychosocial employability is career identity, purported to be the cognitive aspect that drives one's employability (Fugate et al., 2004). Employability in this sense is defined as 'a form of work-specific active adaptability that enables individuals to identify and

realize job opportunities" (Fugate et al., 2004, p. 16). The main tenets of the psychosocial approach are that employability is a synergistic interaction of the three dimensions (personal adaptability, career identity, and social and human capital) and that individuals play a main role in determining their employability (McArdle, Waters, Briscoe, & Hall, 2007). The psychosocial employability, however, lacks a definitive instrument for its measurement.

These conceptualizations of employability discussed above, however, do not take into consideration one's perception of their labor market opportunities and are considered as objective employability. A more subjective approach to employability, also known as perceived employability, is an approach that takes into consideration personal and situational aspects when assessing employability – in a sense, it is the self-assessment of one's repertoire of skills and competences compared to labor market demands (De Cuyper et al., 2011). In this sense, perceived employability is defined as the self-appraisal of one's capacity to obtain a new job (Berntson & Marklund, 2007; Rothwell & Arnold, 2007). When considering perceived employability, Berntson and Marklund (2007) took into account one's traits, perceived skills, experience, network, and labor market knowledge. To a certain extent, these considerations resonate with the personal adaptability and social and human capital dimensions of psychosocial employability.

Among the various approaches to employability, this research adopts the psychosocial employability in Study 1 and perceived employability in Study 2. The psychosocial approach is more appropriate for Study 1 for various reasons: First, the conceptualization of psychosocial employability – proactive adaptation – is more in line with the notion of a protean career and boundaryless career. In addition, the career identity dimension of the psychosocial employability constitutes the cognitive aspect that drives not only the continuous development of one's employability but also drives proactive career management. Second, the objective of Study 1 is to understand the relative importance of career adaptability and employability in the current labor context. As career adaptability is a psychosocial construct, the study of employability from a psychosocial approach would hence be more relevant as both the constructs refer to proactive adaptation to changes. In

addition, the conceptualization of psychosocial employability does not specifically take into consideration factors relating to the internal labor market (i.e., the current organization in which the individual is employed) hence, like career adaptability, it is not dependent on one's employment status, and its applicability can include both the employed and unemployed individuals. Third, both employability and career adaptability include affective, behavioral, and cognitive aspects that contribute to one subjective career success. For example, and in contrast, the competences approach is largely behavioral based and the dispositional approach is largely traits based. However, perceived employability is more appropriate for use in Study 2 because fundamentally, the conflicting relationships observed in literature involves perceived employability. Hence, it would make sense to investigate the 'conflicting' role of employability by maintaining similar conceptualization– i.e., perceived employability. Furthermore, when individuals assess their employability, they tend to take into account their competences, skills, and experiences (Berntson & Marklund, 2007), which to a certain extent reflects psychosocial employability dimensions of personal adaptability and human capital.

Psychosocial model of employability

According to Fugate et al. (2004), employability is the synergistic interaction of three dimensions – personal adaptability, career identity, and social and human capital (figure 3.1). Personal adaptability refers to the 'willingness and ability to change behaviors, feeling, and thoughts in response to environmental demands' (McArdle et al., 2007, p. 248). It can include various individual characteristics or dispositions such as optimism, propensity to learn, openness, internal locus of control and generalized self-efficacy (Fugate et al., 2004). Scholars have operationalized the dimension of personal adaptability using proactive personality and boundaryless career mindset (McArdle et al., 2007) and generalized self-efficacy (González-Romá et al., 2018). Career identity refers to how individuals define or how they want to define themselves in the career context. It is the driver of career motivations, values, interests, and decisions (Fugate et al., 2004). As it is like an 'internal' cognitive compass that supports individuals in managing their career by directing, regulating, and

maintaining their behavior, it can be conceptualized as the motivational and cognitive component of psychosocial employability (McArdle et al., 2007). The internal career compass is central in today's labor market and career context characterized by job insecurity and changing work arrangements and, and a protean and boundaryless career because individuals can no longer rely on the organizations for developing their career path in the organization's hierarchy. That is, individuals have to develop their career based on how they want to define themselves ('desired self') in the career context. Scholars have operationalized this dimension using career self-efficacy and identity awareness (McArdle et al., 2007) and career identity (González-Romá et al., 2018). Human capital refers to personal factors such as knowledge, skills, abilities, and competences, that can affect one's career advancement (Fugate et al., 2004). From a resource-based view perspective, it represents the resources and assets an individual can offer to the employing organization. Social capital refers to the individual's social and professional networks that are useful in supporting individuals to identify and realize career opportunities in different organizations or industries (Fugate et al., 2004). It relates to how the individual and the labor market interact. In another word, it reflects the social and interpersonal aspect of employability.

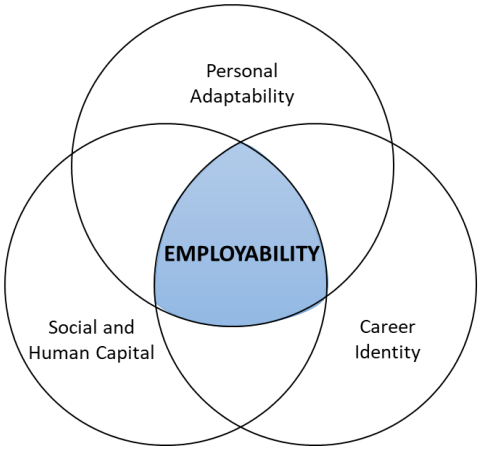

Figure 3.1. Heuristic representation of the psychosocial model of employability

Perceived employability

Perceived employability generally concerns the individual's perception about available job opportunities after taking into account personal and situational factors such as skill and competences, and labor market demands (e.g., skills in demand and unemployment rates). As the perception of one's possibilities to gain new employment can influence thoughts, feelings, reactions, and behavior, scholars have underscored the importance of perceived employability, especially in situations when labor conditions are flexible, uncertain and unpredictable (Berntson & Marklund, 2007; Hetty van Emmerik, Schreurs, de Cuyper, Jawahar, & Peeters, 2012). In addition, the feeling of being employable is purported to give individuals a feeling of security and independence towards environmental stressors such as job insecurity (Rothwell & Arnold, 2007). Within the realm of perceived employability itself, there are also various instruments for its measurement. For instance, Rothwell and Arnold (2007) proposed a self-perceived employability model comprising four quadrants formed by two dimensions – labor market orientation (internal or external) and attributes (personal or occupational). The four-quadrant are a) self-valuation of personal attributes in the current organization, b) perceived value of occupation in the current organization, c) self-valuation of personal attributes outside the current organization, and d) perceived value of occupation outside the current organization. Although the model includes the dimension of the internal labor market, it is still applicable to unemployed individuals, as they would only consider quadrant c and d when they evaluate their employability. On the other hand, Berntson and Marklund (2007) measured perceived employability with a similar but more condensed scale than that of Rothwell and Arnold (2007). The scale considered the evaluation of one's labor market prospects and personal resources – both human capital and social capital. A more general approach to perceived employability can also be measured with individuals' perception of their labor market prospects (Berntson, Sverke, & Marklund, 2006; Gamboa et al., 2009). This approach assumes that individuals will take into account their human capital when they consider their labor market prospects. Study 2 adopts this approach of measuring perceived employability.

Although objective employability (psychosocial employability) and subjective employability (perceived employability) can capture different phenomena (Berntson, 2008), perceived employability nonetheless represents individuals' perception of their objective employability. For example, an individual with a high level of human capital, competences, concrete career identity, and enabling dispositions will tend to perceive themselves to be highly employable. Therefore, during the deliberations in the thesis here forth, the term employability will broadly refer to both the psychosocial employability and perceived employability, unless otherwise mentioned.

Role of Employability in Career Success and Job Insecurity

In the contemporary career context, employability is recognized to be important for career success (Hall, 2002; McArdle et al., 2007; Van Der Heijde & Van Der Heijden, 2006). In support, many studies have shown that employability predicts various subjective career success indicators such as psychological well-being and life satisfaction (Berntson & Marklund, 2007; Briscoe et al., 2012; De Cuyper, Notelaers, et al., 2009; Forrier & Sels, 2003a; Green, 2011; Silla et al., 2009), career satisfaction and perceived marketability (De Vos, De Hauw, & Van der Heijden, 2011), job performance (Rosenberg et al., 2012; Van Der Heijde & Van Der Heijden, 2006) and job satisfaction (Barnett & Bradley, 2007; Gamboa et al., 2009; González-Romá et al., 2018; Van Der Heijde & Van Der Heijden, 2006). Some of the underlying theoretical frameworks that explain the role of employability on career success are the human capital theory (Becker, 1975) and the resource-based view of the firm (Barney, 1991). The various conceptualization of employability points to employability as a function of human capital (competences, knowledge, skills, personality, and dispositions), which enables individuals to carry out their work roles and tasks effectively, hence influencing one's work performances, rewards received from the organization, and the perception of career success. Along this line, Burke and McKeen (1994), and De Vos et al. (2011) demonstrated a positive association between employees' competency development and their perception of future career prospects – i.e., perceived employability. Also, Knabe and Rätzel (2011) found better

job prospects to be a source of greater life satisfaction among unemployed individuals. According to Green (2011), increased employability gives individuals a greater sense of purpose and anticipation of future identity and employment-related activities. In addition, as employable individuals also tend to have more valuable resources (such as social and professional network, autonomy, etc.), the likelihood of them obtaining a job of higher quality is higher. These factors can enhance one's well-being (Vanhercke, Nele, De Witte, De Cuyper, & De Witte, 2016). For example, Vanhercke (2015) demonstrated that skill utilization mediates the positive effect of perceived employability on well-being among the employed. The conservation of resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 2002), is another perspective from which one can understand the role of employability on career success. According to the COR, individuals will attempt to preserve and develop available resources. Concerning employability and career success, COR suggests that employable individuals will attempt to preserve and further develop their resource by investing their resources to performing well at their job and in helping behaviors (Philippaers, Cuyper, & Forrier, 2016). As job performance is one of the keys to unlocking more organizational rewards and other success experiences (Trevor, Hausknecht, & Howard, 2007) and helping behaviors can foster one's social capital (Forrier & Sels, 2003b; Wittekind, Raeder, & Grote, 2009), investing in these aspects can support individuals in acquiring more resources to form 'resource caravans', which makes them more robust to loss through events such as job loss and unemployment (De Cuyper et al., 2014; Hobfoll, 1989).

Another approach to understanding the role of employability is the notion of employability as a form of employment security. During the twentieth century, employability was regarded as employment security, an alternative to diminishing job security and is considered as a protection mechanism against job insecurity (Forrier & Sels, 2003b). Job security refers to the notion of lifetime employment and the probability of staying with the same employer in one's career track. However, due to the globalized market competition, organizations began to undertake structural changes (for example downsizing and offshoring) and can no longer offer job security to their employees. Hence, the notion that sustainability

of one's income should not be dependent on the current job/employment but on the ability to find new employment in the labor market, i.e., employment security, grew. In the same vein, Kunda, Barley, and Evans (2002) exerted that 'security' for individuals working in boundaryless environments is based on one's human capital and the ability to 'sell their skills to employers.' Because of the ability to find new employment in the external labor market, employability/employment security gives individuals a sense of control of their career and confidence to handle restructuring and readjustments, hence supporting individuals to cope with job insecurity (Fugate et al., 2004; Vanhercke, De Cuyper, Peeters, & De Witte, 2014). In this sense, the role of employability can be explained from the perspective of the human capital theory (Becker, 1964) and the job-demands model (JDR; Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Theoretical frameworks such as the human capital theory (Becker, 1964) suggests employability as an antecedent of job insecurity. As human capital are resources valuable to the organization's productive capabilities, individuals with higher employability have, as discussed earlier, more opportunities to either find a new job or to survive lay-offs. Hence, it gives individuals a higher sense of control over their career in the face of possible job loss – i.e., job insecurity (De Cuyper, Baillien, et al., 2009; Forrier & Sels, 2003b). This notion is supported by the COR theory which suggests that resources induce a sense of control and mastery in individuals (Hobfoll, 2002). In line with these frameworks, studies have demonstrated negative relationship between employability and job insecurity (De Cuyper, Bernhard-Oettel, et al., 2008; Kalyal, Berntson, Baraldi, Näswall, & Sverke, 2010), and employability as an antecedent of job insecurity when predicting outcomes such as well-being (De Cuyper et al., 2008; Peiró et al., 2012; De Cuyper et al., 2012b). For instance, De Cuyper et al. (2008) found the relationship between employability and well-being to be mediated by job insecurity, and Peiro et al. (2011) found that employability predicted job insecurity which in turn predicted work involvement. From the perspective of JDR, job insecurity is generally taken as a job demand, while employability is taken as a personal resource (G. H. L. Cheng & Chan, 2008; De Witte et al., 2016; Lu, Lin, Lu, & Siu, 2015; Sverke et al., 2002) as it represents one's richness in human and social capital which are

resources for optimal functioning at a job. Therefore, according to the JDR, it follows that individuals with higher employability will have more resources to manage the work demands – i.e., work tasks and the threat and stress related to possible job loss, hence reducing the stressor-strain impact (Lu et al., 2015; Cuyper et al., 2010). To date, various studies have ascertained the role of employability and job insecurity on various subjective career success outcomes such as psychological well-being and job satisfaction relationship through the JDR model (Van Den Broeck et al., 2013; De Cuyper et al., 2009a; Silla et al., 2009). For example, Silla et al. (2009) demonstrated that the interaction of perceived employability and job insecurity predicted life satisfaction. Their results indicate that the relationship between job insecurity and life satisfaction was more negative when perceived employability was low. In other word, individuals with higher employability reported higher levels of life satisfaction when job insecurity is high. Also, Baruch (2001) exerted that in adverse conditions such as harsh economic or labor conditions, individuals with high employability tend to react more positively to change as the ability to find a new job can buffer the stressful effect of job insecurity.

CHAPTER FOUR

CAREER ADAPTABLITY

The late twentieth century sees the notion of employability gaining traction as it offers individuals an alternative form of security to the diminishing job security. However, during the early twenty-first century, the rapid pace of technology advancement and global economic instability transformed the world of work into a highly dynamic and turbulent environment, figuratively described as a 'whitewater' environment. Individuals began to face new challenges and demands in sustaining their employability as career development increasingly become multifaceted, unpredictable and transitional in the 'whitewater' environment (Bimrose et al., 2008; Savickas, 2008, 2013). Although responsibility for one's career development remains mainly on the shoulders of the individual as it was during the late twentieth century, it became more self-directed and personalized as career development patterns broke away from the traditional linear and hierarchical career path and the notion of 'corporate ladder' (Bimrose et al., 2008; Savickas, 2008, 2013). As the multifaceted and transitional career development pattern conflicted the concept of vocational choice, career stage, and the notion of 'climbing the corporate ladder,' the theory of career maturity (Super, 1955), becomes less relevant. Career maturity points towards one's ability to master career development tasks and to make career decisions that are appropriate to one's life stage. Career theory in the twenty-first century hence focuses its lens on career construction (Savickas, 1997) which suggests that career development and adjustments involve the need for individuals to continuously adapt to their work and social environment in order to achieve person-environment integration as well as self-defined career success. In the process, work lives and careers are actively created when individuals impose meaning on their vocational behavior (Savickas, 2005). In a sense, individuals are not only responsible for managing their own career development as in the past but are also responsible for constructing their work lives, career, and career success. To chart directions and stay on track in the whitewater world of work, one has to be able to cope with occupational traumas and be adaptable to changes. Many scholars hence proposed career adaptability (Super & Knasel, 1981) as a key competency for career success in the current 'whitewater' world of work (Hall & Chandler, 2005; Hamtiaux et al., 2013; O'Connell et al., 2007).

Career adaptability is defined as the readiness to cope with current and anticipated career-related tasks, transitions, changes and traumas (Savickas, 2005). It acknowledges that for individuals to construct a career, they need to adjust to multiple career/vocational disruptions and transitions, and face with challenges that are novel, ill-defined and non-maturational (i.e., not within the scope of career maturity) in nature (Savickas, 2005; Savickas, Pope, & Niles, 2011). Career adaptability is a psychosocial construct that is person-centered, proactive and future-oriented. It comprises a multitude of attitudes, beliefs, and competencies that individuals activate to fit themselves to work that suits them, and Savickas (2005) categorized into four components: concern, control, curiosity, and confidence. According to Savickas (2005), concern refers to the ability to plan for future career developments, build a career vision and to prepare actions to achieve the visions. The emphasis of the concern dimension is on preparation and planning for the future (Creed, Fallon, & Hood, 2009). Control, according to Savickas (2005) refers to one's responsibility in constructing their career. It reflects decisiveness and the extent of intrapersonal influence on their situations. Curiosity refers to the tendency to broaden horizons, explore alternative and opportunities related to the development of the career, possible self, and the environment (Savickas, 2005). It involves obtaining information through different avenues, obtaining expert advice, and participating in activities associated with exploring career choices. Lastly, confidence implies the belief in oneself and one's ability to overcome challenges and to achieve goals (Savickas, 2005). In short, career adaptability encompasses planning for the future career, making decisions towards achieving the vision, exploring various options and having the confidence to overcome challenges to achieve the desired career goals. It entails adaptation to one's circumstances and to the environment to create a good fit – i.e., fitting oneself to work that suit them (Pratzner & Ashley, 1984). Studies have supported the theorized benefits of career adaptability in managing transitions and coping with work-related stressors. For example, studies revealed that career adaptability promotes positive and successful mid-career transition (A. Brown, Bimrose, Barnes, & Hughes, 2012), enhance coping during job loss, and support people in finding alternative employment of better quality

even when economic and labor conditions are challenging (Ebberwein, Krieshok, Diven, & Prosser, 2004; Klehe et al., 2012). The positive outcomes give scholars confidence to believe that career adaptability can help people to break out of the vicious cycle associated with job insecurity, job loss, unemployment and underemployment (Klehe et al., 2012).

Role of Career Adaptability in Career Success and Job Insecurity

Although the emphasis on the concept of career adaptability gained traction mainly during the early twenty-first century, empirical evidence that corroborates the notion that career adaptability support individuals to cope with career-related challenges and to achieve career success are aplenty. For instance, studies have demonstrated that career adaptability relates positively with various employment-related outcomes such as job search self-efficacy (Guan et al., 2013), reemployment quality (Ebberwein et al., 2004; Klehe et al., 2012; Koen, Klehe, Van Vianen, Zikic, & Nauta, 2010; Zikic & Klehe, 2006), promotability (Tolentino, Garcia, Restubog, Bordia, & Tang, 2013), and successful school to work transition (Koen, Klehe, & Van Vianen, 2012). Studies have also indicated that career adaptability predicts subjective career success outcomes such as perceived person-job fit and person-organization fit (Guan et al., 2013; Z. Jiang, 2016), career satisfaction and work engagement (S. H. J. Chan & Mai, 2015; Fiori et al., 2015; Rossier, Zecca, Stauffer, Maggiori, & Dauwalder, 2012; Santilli et al., 2014), and well-being (Maggiori, Johnston, Krings, Massoudi, & Rossier, 2013). Because young people will ultimately need to enter the labor market, they also benefit from enhanced career adaptability even when they are in still in education. For example, career adaptability has been found to be a predictor of positive youth development (Hirschi, 2009), student motivation (Pouyaud, Vignoli, Dosnon, & Lallemand, 2012), academic engagement (Merino-Tejedor, Hontangas, & Boada-Grau, 2016) and student well-being (Koen et al., 2012). Besides young people, the impact of career adaptability also extends to organizations. For example, studies indicate that career adaptability enhances affective commitment to the organization (Ito & Brotheridge, 2005), reduces the likelihood of

employees experiencing job content plateaus[2] (Z. Jiang, 2016) and reduce the intention to leave the organization and the career (Ferreira, Coetzee, & Masenge, 2013; Omar & Noordin, 2013).

Besides through the virtues of the four dimensions of career adaptability, the positive effects of career adaptability can also be understood through goal setting theory (Locke & Latham, 2006) which assert that motivation comes from the desire and intention to reach a goal. Although career adaptability itself may not explicitly entail goal setting, the career concern dimension involves the building of a personal career vision or career alternatives or career aspirations, which represents one's desired future state. In a sense, this is a form of career goal that is personally appealing and meaningful to the individual, and according to the goal-setting theory, it motivates individuals to achieve their desired outcome. Klehe and colleagues (2012) also suggest that the personal appeal and meaningfulness of the formulated career alternatives may strengthen one's self-determination to achieve the desired future despite challenges and obstacles. They further elaborate that the belief in one's personal responsibility and ability to shape their future enables them to face economic stressors with optimism and a strong motivation to achieve their vision and aspiration. This exertion is in line with the conceptualization of the control and confidence dimension of career adaptability. The positive effect of career adaptability especially during job insecurity and challenging labor conditions can also be understood through its role as a self-regulating and proactive coping resource (Creed et al., 2009; Klehe et al., 2012; Merino-Tejedor et al., 2016; Stoltz et al., 2013; van Vianen, Klehe, Koen, & Dries, 2012). Self-regulation refers to the myriad process where individuals exert control over their thoughts, feelings and impulses during events such as stress, changes or challenges, to achieve the desired goals (Baumeister, Gailliot, DeWall, & Oaten, 2006) while proactive coping focuses on the effective use of resources, realistic goal setting and the realization of visions to overcome, rather than

[2] Job content plateau are situations where employees no longer feel that work or job responsibilities are challenging and perceive job tasks to be routine and boring as they feel they have mastered their work (Bardwick, 1986; Allen et al., 1999 as cited in Jiang, 2016).

avoid threats (C. G. Davis & Asliturk, 2011). According to Parker, Bindl, and Strauss (2010) proactive coping is a form of proactive behavior, which entails individuals taking control and actively making changes to their environment. These aspects of proactive coping resonate well with the concern and control dimensions of career adaptability, and to some extent the confidence dimension.

Career Adaptability and Employability

Given that both employability and career adaptability are important constructs for career success in the contemporary world of work, it may be worthwhile to summarize some of the differences between the two. The information can be useful for understanding the predictive importance of the two constructs on outcomes such as subjective career success. This is especially so when most of the studies at this moment examine the roles of career adaptability and employability independently of each other.

To begin, unmistakable similarities between psychosocial employability and career adaptability are that both the concepts i) are psychosocial and person-centered constructs, ii) according to the career resource model (Hirschi, 2012), comprise psychological and career identity resources, iii) entail adapting to work-related demands and the environment, and iv) entail proactivity. In terms of definition, psychosocial employability can be seen to be rather similar to career adaptability as Fugate and colleagues (2004) described it as “a form of work specific active *adaptability that enable workers to identify and realize career opportunities*” (p.16), while Savickas (1997) describe career adaptability as the ability for individuals to adjust themselves to fit the environment and to cope with work demands. To be precise, adaptability in the context of psychosocial employability refers mainly to individual differences that *predispose* individuals to proactive adaptations – i.e., personal characteristics that enable individuals to proactively identify and realize opportunities at work regardless of the presence of threats such as possible job loss. Fugate and colleagues (2004) proposed five individual differences to express the concept of personal adaptability – Optimism, propensity to learn, openness, internal locus of control and generalized self-efficacy. In this aspect,

adaptability carries a more dispositional connotation rather than motivational-behavioral as it is with career adaptability. This aspect has been reflected by McArdle et al. (2007) when they operationalized the personal adaptability dimension of psychosocial employability using boundaryless mindset and proactive personality. Proactive personality is defined as the *predisposition* to initiate action to change one's environment (Bateman & Crant, 1993). Career adaptability, on the other hand, carries a more motivational connotation rather than dispositional because the career construction theory posits that the career adaptability resources of concern, control, curiosity, and confidence, form the strategies that direct and motivates one's adaptive behaviors. The career adaptability resources enable individuals to formulate and implement their occupational self-concepts and career vision to build their careers and work lives (De Guzman & Choi, 2013). Another key difference between the two concepts lies in their roles as a coping mechanism during challenging situations such as job insecurity and job loss. The key coping mechanism of career adaptability is proactive coping, which involves the use of personal resources, goals setting, and vision realization to achieve a desired future outcome (C. G. Davis & Asliturk, 2011). On the other hand, the main coping mechanism of employability is the perception of job opportunities and alternatives (De Cuyper, Bernhard-Oettel, et al., 2008) that exist because of one's human capital and other personal resources. For example, (perceived) employability buffers the impacts of job insecurity and unemployment because the perception of job alternatives positively influences one's behavior, reactions, and thoughts (Berntson & Marklund, 2007) and strengthens the sense of security and independence towards environmental situations (Berglund, Furaker, & Vulkan, 2014; Berntson, Naswall, & Sverke, 2010).

Regardless, career adaptability and employability are two distinct concepts that share some similarities, at least at the conceptual level. The extent of similarity (commonality) has yet to be empirically examined. Given that both the concepts are important predictors of career success in the twenty-first century, examining the predictive importance and commonality of the two concepts can shed light on how relevant is employability in the

presence of career adaptability, and can also prompt the refinement of the two concepts into a single and more parsimonious concept.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF STUDIES

The empirical part of this dissertation comprises three studies. The first study (Study 1) investigates the relative importance and commonality of employability and career adaptability on career success. The second study (Study 2) clarify the role of employability and job insecurity in the current labor market by investigating the relevance of two competing models – the mediation and moderation model in two different labor conditions. Lastly, the third study (Study 3) examines when job insecurity enhances job performance. This chapter is divided into two sections. The first section comprises a general description of the datasets, a general overview of the contents (Table 5.1) and an overview of the measures used in the three studies (Table 5.2). The second section is divided into three separate part, one for each study. Each part describes the general aim, sample description and analytical methods involved in the study. As details pertaining to the execution of the analysis for each of the studies can be found in their respective chapters (chapter 6, 7, 8), considerations, features and merits of the analysis whenever possible will be presented instead of repeating the information available in the studies.

General Description of the Datasets

This research was based on four data sets, obtained from three different sources. Specifically, Study 1 uses a dataset collected from various private and public universities in Mexico City by the Instituto Tecnológico Autónomo de México (ITAM). Among the 300 respondents, 160 qualified to participate in the study. Study 2 uses two population-based datasets obtained from the data bank of Observatory of Young People's Transition into the Labor Market (Observatorio de Inserción Laboral de los Jóvenes; IVIE) in Spain. The 2008 survey yielded 3000 respondents and the 2011 survey yielded 2000. Among the respondents, some 1480 and 850 from the survey of 2008 and 2011 qualified to participate in the study. Lastly, Study 3 uses a dataset collected from a state-owned public transportation company in the Netherlands by the Universiteit van Amsterdam (UvA). The survey yielded 125 respondents and all respondents qualified to participate in the study.

Table 5.1 presents an overview of the contents of the three studies. Brief description of the data, variables, and analytical methods involved are presented in the table.

Table 5.1
General description of the studies in this research

	Study 1	**Study 2**	**Study 3**
Data Source:	ITAM	IVIE	UvA
Type of Data:	Cross-Sectional Sample	2 Cross-Sectional Samples	Cross-Sectional Sample
Year Data Collected:	2015	2008, 2011	2012
Study Population:	N.A	Representative of Spanish young Job Entrants	N.A
Sample[1] Description:	N = 160 Age = 20.6 (SD = 3.73)	N_{2008} = 1485 Age = 23.39 (SD = 3.73); N_{2011} = 848 Age = 25.06 (SD = 3.50)	N = 103 Age = 46.23 (SD = 12.19)
Sample Characteristics:	University Graduates	Working Adults	Electrical and Mechanical Technicians
Dependent Variables:	Job Satisfaction Self-Perceived Job Performance	Life Satisfaction Psychological Well-Being	Supervisor-rated Job Overall Performance Employee self-rated contextual performance
Variables used:	Employability • Proactive Personality • Career Identity Career Adapt-Ability	Job Insecurity Perceived Employability	Job insecurity Perceived organizational support Job satisfaction
Analytical Method:	Confirmatory Factor Analysis Relative Weights Analysis Commonality Analysis	Confirmatory Factor Analysis Measurement Invariance Latent Variable Mediation and Moderation	Confirmatory Factor Analysis MultiLevel Analysis

[1] Respondents who met the study's requirement and qualified to participate

General Description of the Key Variables in the Studies

Table 5.2 presents a summary of the measures (excluding demographic control variables) utilized in each study. The table presents brief information such as an example item of the scale, the referencing source, and the measurement scale. Information such as the Cronbach alphas can be found in the respective chapters (as indicated in the table). Annex I presents the items of the measures used in this research.

Table 5.2
General description of the variables in this research

Study (chapter)	Variable	Number of Items (source) "Example item."	Measurement scale
Independent variables			
Study 1 (Chapter 6)	Career Adaptability	24 items (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012) "Thinking about what my future will be like."	5 point Likert scale (1) not strong (5) strongest
Study 1 (Chapter 6)	Employability	Proactive Personality, 5 items (Bateman & Crant, 1993) "Nothing is more exciting than seeing my ideas turn into reality." Career identity scale, 4 items (González-Romá et al., 2018) "I have a high motivation to develop the career I desire."	5 point Likert scale (1) strongly disagree (5) strongly agree
Study 2 (Chapter 7)	Perceived Employability	3 items (Stumpf et al., 1983) "In the current labor market, it seems possible to find work for which I am prepared or have experience."	5 point Likert scale (1) strongly disagree (5) strongly agree
Study 2 (Chapter 7)	Job insecurity	3 items (De Witte, 2000) "There are possibilities that I will lose my job soon."	5 point Likert scale (1) strongly disagree (5) strongly agree
Study 3 (Chapter 8)		3 items (Johnny Hellgren et al., 1999) "There is a risk that I will have to leave my present job in the year to come."	
Outcome variables			
Study 1 (Chapter 6)	Self-rated job performance	5 items (created for this study) "I achieve the objectives and goals that I had to fulfill in a timely manner."	10 point Likert scale (1) very low (5) very high
Study 1,3 (Chapter 6,8)	Job satisfaction	4 item (Brayfield & Rothe, 1951) "Most days I am enthusiastic about my work."	5 point Likert scale (1) very unsatisfied (5) very satisfied

Study 2 (Chapter 7)	Life satisfaction	1 item "How satisfied do you currently feel about your life in general?"	10 point Likert scale (1) very unsatisfied (10) very satisfied
Study 2 (Chapter 7)	Psychological well being	4 items (GHQ-12; Goldberg, 1978) "I am constantly under strain."	5 point Likert scale (1) strongly disagree (5) strongly agree
Study 3 (Chapter 8)	Supervisor rated overall performance	3 items to assess task and contextual performance: • the task performance of the employee • employee's willingness to support peers (OCB-I) • the effort an employee puts into the organization (OCB-O).	10 point Likert scale (1) extremely poor (5) outstanding
Study 3 (Chapter 8)	Employee self-rated contextual performance	OCB-I : 8 items (Lee & Allen, 2002) "I am willing to offer my time to help others who have work-related problems." OCB-O: 8 items (Lee & Allen, 2002) "I defend the organization when other employees criticize it."	5 point Likert scale (1) never (5) always
Moderators variables			
Study 3 (Chapter 8)	Intrinsic motivation	6 items (Warr et al., 1979) "I like to look back on the day's work with a sense of a job well done."	5 point Likert scale (1) strongly disagree (5) strongly agree
Study 3 (Chapter 8)	Perceived Distributive Justice	3 items (Colquitt, 2001) "The reward I receive from my company reflects the effort I put into my work."	5 point Likert scale (1) strongly disagree (5) strongly agree
Control variables			
Study 3 (Chapter 8)	Perceived organizational support	7 items (Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli, & Lynch, 1997) *"The* organization really cares about my well-being."	5 point Likert scale (1) strongly disagree (5) strongly agree

Notes: OCB-I : Organizational citizenship behavior – Individual, OCB-O: Organizational citizenship behavior – Organization

Study 1

General aim

The overall objective of Study 1 is to investigate the relevance of employability to subjective career success (job satisfaction and self-perceived job performance) amidst the rising attention on Career Adaptability in today's world of work. To achieve the objective, the first aim of the study investigates the relative importance of employability and career adaptability while the second aim of the study investigates the commonality shared between employability and career adaptability when predicting job satisfaction and self-perceived job performance.

Sample description

The dataset used in Study 1 was collected from various private and public universities in Mexico City by ITAM to understand graduates' transition into the labor market. The survey was conducted through an online platform between March and May of 2015. The survey inquired about graduates' employment status, employment history, job search history (if unemployed), and valuation of various personal factors (such as career identity, proactive personality, career adaptability, etc.) and career success indicators (such as job satisfaction, person-job fit, horizontal fit, etc.). Approximately 300 graduates between the ages of 25 to 60 responded to the online survey. Among the 300 respondents, 160 qualified to participate in the study as they met the study's requirements of being in employment and aged below 35 at the time of the survey.

Data analyses

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was first conducted to ascertain the reliability and validity of the instrument for measuring career adaptability – Career Adapt-Ability Scale (CAAS; Savickas & Porfeli, 2012) in Mexico. The second-order CFA was conducted using Mplus Version 7.4 (Muthén & Muthén, 2012), using the maximum likelihood estimator – MLMV because it is robust to multivariate non-normality (Muthén & Muthén, 2012) and data measured using 5-point Likert scales tend to violate normality. As the requirement for

estimating second-order CFA is a minimum of three first-order factors, the factor structure of employability (EMP) which is formed by the proactive personality and career identity scales, was not estimated.

Variable importance was estimated using two analytical methods – Relative Weights Analysis (RWA) and Commonality Analysis (CA). Among the various analytical methods available for estimating variable importance (e.g., Dominance analysis, Regression weights, squared structure coefficient, Pratt measure, etc.), RWA and CA were selected because they are suitable for a two-predictor regression model and correlated predictors (see Nimon & Oswald, 2013). For example, similar to RWA, dominance analysis can indicate which predictor contributes more unique variance; however, it is unsuitable for this study as it requires a minimum of three-predictors for the analysis (Nimon & Oswald, 2013). Besides, although it may seem straightforward to estimate the relative importance using regression weights and variance partitioning for a two-predictor model, multicollinearity can affect the accuracy of the results (Nimon & Oswald, 2013; Tonidandel & LeBreton, 2015). Multicollinearity is an issue because literature indicates correlations between career adaptability and employability indicators (Cai et al., 2015; Ibarra & Barbulescu, 2010; Negru-Subtirica, Pop, & Crocetti, 2015; Öncel, 2014; Porfeli & Savickas, 2012; Tolentino et al., 2014). Another merit of RWA is the significance test of the relative weights, which gives information pertaining to the meaningfulness of the predictors (Tonidandel & LeBreton, 2015). For example, a variable may explain a small portion of variance yet be a meaningful predictor if the weights of the other predictors in the model are not significant, or a variable may account for a large portion of variance but is of little practical utility if its weight is not significant (see Cortina & Landis, 2009). However, although RWA reflects the proportional contribution of predictors, it does not identify the presence or magnitude of multicollinearity (Nimon & Oswald, 2013). Therefore, CA was conducted to understand the magnitude of the

only location[3] of multicollinearity, i.e., the overlap/commonality between CAAS and EMP. In this study, RWA was conducted using the R script developed by Tonidandel and LeBreton (2015) from the RWA-Web, and CA was conducted using the SPSS script developed by Nimon (2010).

Study 2

General aim

The overall objective of Study 2 is to clarify the role of perceived employability and job insecurity on subjective career success (life satisfaction and well-being) by comparing two competing models in two different labor conditions: normal labor conditions (year 2008; before the global economic crisis) and harsh labor conditions (year 2011, i.e., during the economic crisis).

Sample description

The datasets used in Study 2 are population-based data obtained from the the data bank of Observatory of Young People's Transition into the Labor Market (Observatorio de Inserción Laboral de los Jóvenes; IVIE) in Spain. IVIE monitors the labor market integration of young Spaniards aged 16 to 30 who are entering or have entered the labor market for the first time in the five years preceding the survey. The surveys were conducted every three years since 1996 until 2011 during May and June. The surveys were distributed among all the Spanish autonomous communities (except Ceuta/ Melilla and the archipelagoes) according to the weight of the population of young people of each community in the national total. The surveys reached out to 15 autonomous communities, which covered 17 provinces/34 municipalities. Both urban (population ≥50 000 inhabitants) and non-urban (population < 50 000 inhabitants) municipalities were included in the surveys. The survey questions were divided into four large blocks. Block A collects personal data, Block B collects labor and educational history, Block C collects attitudes about work (such as

[3] As there are only two predictors in this study, there is only one location of multicollinearity.

perceived employability, career self-efficacy, life satisfaction, etc.) and lastly, Block D collects data on family classification (such as family income, parents educational level, etc.)

Study 2 uses the 2008 and 2011 datasets. The two datasets are considered cross-sectional as respondents from the two surveys participated in only one of the survey. The 2008 sample comprises 3000 respondents, and the 2011 sample comprises 2000 respondents. However, only respondents who were employed at the time of the survey qualified to participate in the study. The resulting sample size was approximately 1480 and 850 participants, aged between 20 – 30 years old. The percentage of respondents who were in employment (i.e., participants) in 2008 and 2011 was 52.9% and 44.1% respectively. The percentage was comparable to the population percentage of young Spaniards in employment in 2008 (52.30%) and 2011 (38.70%) (Eurostat, 2018b).

Data analyses

All analyses (CFA and Structural Equation Modelling) in Study 2 were carried out in AMOS 23.0 (Arbuckle, 2014) using maximum likelihood estimation with bootstrapping of 2000 samples to obtain bias-corrected estimates and probability in all the analysis. Bootstrapping was exercised because data measured using 5-point Likert scale tend to violate normality assumptions.

Measurement invariance (MI) is a method to establish if measurements taken from different conditions of observations and contexts, measures the same attributes (Horn & Mcardle, 1992). In another word, MI establish if a measurement means the same thing to the comparison groups. Literature underscores the importance of establishing MI for meaningful and reliable interpretation of group difference (such as mean scores and regression coefficient; Chen, Sousa, & West, 2005), even for groups from within the same culture (Vandenberg and Lance, 2000; Steinmetz et al., 2009). As Study 2 comprises two samples obtained from two different economic and labor conditions, it is imperative to establish invariance prior to muti-group mediation and moderation analysis.

In MI, parameters (e.g., factor loading, indicator intercepts, residual variances, structural means, etc.) are progressively subjected to equality constrains with each successive step retaining constrains from the previous model. Models from each step are assessed for model fit using various goodness of fit indices (i.e., RMSEA < .08, CFI > .90, TLI > .90) prior to assessing the incremental fit – i.e., the improvements of the successive models (see Milfont & Fischer, 2010, pg 117). The incremental fit of the model at each successive step indicates invariance when the change in CFI (ΔCFI) is less than or equal to .01 (Cheung and Rensvold, 2002). ΔCFI is preferred over the traditional likelihood ratio test (χ2 test) for the goodness of fit and incremental fit as the latter is sensitive to sample size; the χ2 statistics mostly rejects the model when the sample size is large (Bentler & Bonett, 1980). Full invariance for a model is achieved when all parameters are equal in all groups and ΔCFI < .01. However full invariance may not be realistic all the time. In such a case, partial invariance can be accepted as meeting requirements for MI (Byrne, Shavelson, & Muthén, 1989). Partial invariance is when a subset of parameters in a model is held to equality constrained while another subset (as indicated by the modification indices) is not. In addition, partial invariance is permitted only if the parameters relaxed (i.e., not held to equality constrains) is the smaller subset (Vandenberg & Lance, 2000). For the overall conclusion of MI, Vandenberg and Lance (2002) recommended that configural invariance and at least a partial metric invariance should be established prior to testing any further partial invariance models. MI in this study is conducted using the flow recommended by Vandenberg and Lance (2000, p 56). It is carried out in the following steps:

Step 1: Model 0 - Test for equal factor structure (configural invariance); no constrains imposed
Step 2: Model 1 - Test for equal factor loading (metric invariance); equality constrains on factor loadings
Step 3: Model 2 - Test for equal indicator intercepts (scalar variance); equality constrains on item means
Step 4: Model 3 - Test for equal error variance (strict variance); equality constrains on error terms of items
Step 5: Model 4 - Test for equal structural covariance; equality constrains on latent factor covariance
Step 6: Model 5 - Test for equal structural means; equality constrains on latent factor means

Structural equation modeling (SEM) is a compendium of techniques that explore relationships among variables by analyzing the covariance (Kline, 2011). Latent variable mediation and latent variable interaction (moderation) are among the many SEM techniques available. Latent variables refer to unobserved theoretical constructs formed by various measured items (observations). For example, perceived employability in this study is a latent construct formed by three observed items. Among the many merits of SEM is the accounting of measurement error (Raykov & Marcoulides, 2006), thus allowing "true variance" to be separated from "error variance" also known as "disturbance" (McCoach, Black, & O'Connell, 2007). Estimates of relationships between variables can be more accurate in SEM than in regression because unreliability within the construct is corrected when multiple indicators are used to estimate the effects of the latent variables (McCoach et al., 2007)

Latent variable mediation was conducted for the two samples using a multi-group set-up (Group 1 = 2008 sample and Group 2 = 2011 sample). The traditional mediation process includes testing for a significant total effect (path from predictor to outcome variable - ***c***) prior to testing for mediation, however updates in the field have recommended dropping the practice because mediation (indirect effects) can be present in the absence of a total or direct effect (Rucker, Preacher, Tormala, & Petty, 2011). Instead, Rucker et al. (2011) emphasize that the test for mediation should be guided by theory regardless of the significance of the total or indirect effect. In the case of this study, there is sufficient theoretical and empirical support that suggest mediation effect (De Cuyper et al., 2008; Peiró et al., 2012; De Cuyper et al., 2012b), and hence a valid mediation study. Rucker et al. (2011) further recommend a focus on the presence and magnitude of the indirect effects for a test of mediation rather than on concluding *partial* or *full* mediation, as they can be misleading. Taken together, conditions for mediation are: i) a significant path from the predictor to the mediator (***a***), ii) a significant path from the mediator to the outcome variable (***b***), and iii) a significant indirect effect (***a*** x ***b***) (Rucker et al., 2011). Nonetheless, the test for total effect and direct effect was included in this study as it would be interesting to

understand if perceived employability predicts well-being and life satisfaction differently in different labor conditions.

Latent variable interaction (Moderation) was conducted for the two samples using multi-group set up (Group 1 = 2008 sample and Group 2 = 2011 sample) using the orthogonalizing approach (Little, Bovaird, & Widaman, 2006). Among the various approaches available for latent variable interaction (e.g., product indicator, 2-stage, hybrid), the orthogonalizing approach has better prediction accuracy and performs well in most circumstances (Henseler & Chin, 2010). This approach utilizes residual centering to create interaction terms that are uncorrelated (orthogonal) to its first-order effect terms – i.e., the observed/measured items (Little et al., 2006) and its regression coefficient can be directly interpreted as the interaction effect (Lance, 1988). In addition, it does not require additional recalculations of parameters (Little et al., 2006). To obtain the latent variable interaction terms, Little et al. (2006) prescribe the following steps:

i) forming the uncentered product terms
ii) regressing each of the product terms individually onto their first order indicators
iii) saving the residuals from the regression for use as indicators in SEM
iv) building latent variable interaction model with latent interaction term (from step iii), latent predictors items, latent moderator items, and latent outcome items.
v) Correlating error covariance from interaction items to their respective first order effect items
vi) Ensuring that latent interaction terms do not correlate with latent moderator nor latent predictor term

More detailed description of how orthogonalization was done in this research can be found in the methods section of Study 2. The minimal condition for moderation is a significant interaction effect and a significant main effect of the predictor on the outcome variable.

Study 3

General aim

The overall objective of Study 3 is to uncover when do employees show a behavioral response to job insecurity in the form enhanced overall job performance.

Sample description

The sample used in Study 3 was collected from a state-owned public transportation company in the Netherlands. It comprises 125 participants who are mainly electrical and mechanical technicians from the engineering department between the ages 22 to 64. The department comprises five work teams (ranging from 12 to 29 members), and the supervisors were invited to rate their team members on their overall performance. The survey was initiated at the initial phase of reorganization to study the impact of a recent government budget cut and the reorganization on various aspects such as employees' performance, work motivation and employees' experience of the organization (such as organizational justice perception, and support). The study was called for because employees in state-owned companies in the Netherlands usually work in a stable and predictable work environment and receive good employment protection coverage; the budget cut and reorganization challenged the status quo.

Data analyses

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was first conducted to ascertain the construct validity of the scales used in Study 3. The five-factor measurement model comprising job insecurity, intrinsic motivation, distributive justice, organizational support, and job satisfaction were tested. As there can be potential similarities between i) intrinsic motivation and job satisfaction, and ii) distributive justice and organizational support items, alternative measurement models were also tested to verify if the five-factor model best explains the data.

Multilevel regression analysis was carried out in SPSS 24.0 (IBM Corp, 2016). Multilevel analysis was chosen because the study examines employees' performance based on supervisors' ratings. As employees are nested within work units and supervisors may systematically differ in their performance ratings, the data collected within work units were not independent of each other. Non-interdependence among observational data violates a basic assumption of traditional linear model analyses and results in α-error inflation

(Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002). In this aspect, multilevel analysis is appropriate because it can control for the dependence of data stemming from the same units and can keep the α-error level constant. A possible concern pertaining to the appropriateness of multilevel analysis for Study 3 is the small sample and cluster size. Specifically, the analysis consists of five clusters with an average cluster size of 20 employees, which deviates from the norm of 30 clusters with a size of 30 (Kreft, 1996). However, we believe that the sample size does not pose any major issues for several reasons. First, Snijders (2005) indicated that the sample size at the micro-level (i.e., total sample size) matters if the effect of a micro-level variable is of main interest, rather than the number of clusters. Because we are more interested in the level one effect, we have confidence that a small number of clusters (N=5), a small cluster size (n = ~ 20) and a total sample size of 103 suffice. Second, Maas and Hox (2005) found that i) regression coefficients and variance components were all estimated with negligible bias through simulation studies involving varying clusters (N= 30, 50, 100), varying sizes (n = 5, 30, 50), and varying intra-class correlations (ICC = .1, .2, .3), and ii) unbalanced cluster size had no influence on multilevel ML estimates. The detailed description of the multilevel analysis execution can be found in the results section of Study 3.

CHAPTER SIX (Study I)

PATHWAY TO SUCCESS:

VALIDATION OF CAAS (MEXICO) AND UTILITY ANALYSIS OF CAREER ADAPTABILITY AND EMPLOYABILITY

Introduction

The rapid pace of globalization, digitalization and economic change in the twenty-first century have shifted the business landscape and nature of work. Intensified global competition has prompted businesses to stay relevant, responsive, and adaptive. Ways organizations respond to the competition include restructuring, reorganizing and adjusting job roles and functions. As a result, organizational changes became pervasive and job insecurity increases (Bimrose et al., 2008). Individuals increasingly need to cope with uncertainty, new challenges, demands, and stress arising from transitions and changes at work. Career adaptability (Savickas, 2005), defined as the readiness to cope with current and anticipated career-related tasks, transitions and changes, thus gained prominence as one of the central constructs in career development. To date, studies have shown that career adaptability supports individuals in coping with unemployment-related stress (Konstam, Celen-Demirtas, Tomek, & Sweeney, 2015), adjusting to work environment (Stoltz et al., 2013), gaining quality employment (Koen et al., 2010), *job performance* (Ohme & Zacher, 2015) and *job satisfaction* (Fiori et al., 2015; Santilli et al., 2014). As the readiness to cope with work/career related challenges is important to individuals of all ages and across all life stages, many scholars emphasised its importance for career success (Hamtiaux et al., 2013; Zacher, 2014), which is defined as the accomplishment of desirable work-related outcomes from one's work experience (Seibert, Kraimer, & Liden, 2001). Career adaptability can be assessed using the instrument – Career Adapt-Ability Scale (CAAS; Savickas & Porfeli, 2012), which has been tested and proven to be a useful instrument across many countries. At the time when this study was conducted, the Spanish version of the CAAS was not yet available; hence, this study aims to examine the validity of a Spanish version of the CAAS with Mexican sample. This address a gap in the accessibility of the scale in Hispanic-America, an unexplored region in career adaptability studies.

Prior to the heightened attention on career adaptability, the concept of employability is also a known concept crucial for career success and career self-management (Forrier & Sels,

2003b; Hall, 2002; Hogan et al., 2013; McQuaid & Lindsay, 2005). Broadly, employability is defined as the ability to retain or obtain a job in both internal and external labor market (Forrier & Sels, 2003a; Fugate et al., 2004; Hillage & Pollard, 1999). It entails individual factors such as personal knowledge, skills, competencies, and attributes that increases the likelihood for individuals to gain employment and be successful in their chosen job (Hogan et al., 2013; McQuaid, 2006; Yorke, 2004). In this paper, we operationalize employability using the psychosocial model of employability which describes employability as the synergistic amalgamation of a variety of individual factors, grouped into three categories: personal adaptability, career identity, and human and social capital (Fugate et al., 2004). The importance of employability can be demonstrated by its inclusion in various levels of policy ranging from educational to international institutions since the twentieth century (see McQuaid & Lindsay, 2005). Furthermore, employability matters because organizations need people who are competent, flexible and possess the relevant skills to maintain the organization's competitive advantage (van der Heijden, 2002). Literature review indicates that employability, like career adaptability, can enhance *job performance* (Rosenberg et al., 2012; Van Der Heijde & Van Der Heijden, 2006) and *job satisfaction* (Barnett & Bradley, 2007; Gamboa et al., 2009; González-Romá et al., 2018; Van Der Heijde & Van Der Heijden, 2006).

As career adaptability and employability seem to be important constructs, we aim to examine their relative importance and the extent of shared commonality when predicting subjective career success indicators in the form of *job satisfaction* (JS) and *perceived job performance* (JP) (Heslin, 2005; Ng et al., 2005). Subjective career success refers to individuals' perceptual evaluation of their career achievements in relation to their own objectives and expectations (Ng et al., 2005; Seibert, Kraimer, & Crant, 2001). We are interested in subjective career success rather than objective career success (verifiable outcomes such as salary, promotion, etc.) mainly because of the diminishing career ladder and changing demands in the current world of work which made subjective career success more relevant to individuals (Savickas, 2008; Shockley et al., 2016). Examining the

differential predictive importance not only indicate which concept is more important, but it can also indicate if the concept of employability is still relevant amidst the rising attention on career adaptability. This can prompt both theory and practice to be more streamlined and effective in their efforts to make a difference in the field. For example, efforts can focus more on studying/ developing career adaptability if employability is a minor or non-significant predictor of JP in the presence of career adaptability, and vice versa. We are not suggesting that the concept of career adaptability and employability cannot co-exist; they could be proportionately relevant or share some commonality as suggested by the literature. For example, Fugate et al. (2004) described employability as "a form of work specific active *adaptability*" (p.16), and *personal adaptability* is a dimension in the psychosocial model of employability. Also, the career resource model (Hirschi, 2012) considers career adaptability as a combination of psychological and career identity resources while employability as a combination of psychological, career identity, social capital, and human capital resources. Aligned to this, various studies have found correlation between career adaptability and various employability indicators relating to the personal adaptability dimension (such as proactive personality, boundaryless mindset; Cai et al., 2015; Öncel, 2014; Tolentino et al., 2014) and career identity dimension (such as vocational identity, identity exploration, career goal decidedness; Ibarra & Barbulescu, 2010; Negru-Subtirica, Pop, & Crocetti, 2015; Porfeli & Savickas, 2012) of the psychosocial model of employability. However, the degree of commonality is unclear and has yet to be examined. Obtaining clarity in this matter can plausibly indicate possibilities of refining the two concepts into a single and more parsimonious concept. It can also offer the opportunity for designing career development programs that enhance both career adaptability and employability simultaneously. This opportunity can be valuable as most employability programs incline towards building human capital through avenues such as on-the-job training, job-specific skills and employability skills (International Monetary Fund, The World Bank, International Labor Organization [ILO], & Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development [OECD], 2016; Kluve, 2014), for they are more tangible, measurable and suitable for group-based learning. As career

adaptability resources can also be developed through a skills-and-knowledge approach and in group-based training (Koen et al., 2012), its inclusion in employability training can plausibly develop individuals more holistically, i.e., in the four career resources areas. Its benefit is two-fold because not only do individuals enhance their employability, they also develop their career adaptability resources at the same time. This is advantageous for the individuals because organizations need competent employees to maintain the organization's competitive advantage and employees who can change and adapt quickly in a world of work characterized by constant and rapid changes.

In sum, our research attempts to make the following contributions to the career adaptability literature. First, it adds additional evidence supporting the reliability, validity, and utility of the CAAS across different cultural context. Second, by validating CAAS in Mexico, we also address the gap regarding the accessibility of CAAS in Hispanic-America, an unexplored region in career adaptability studies. Third, by understanding the differential predictive importance, we can get an indication if the concept of employability is still relevant amidst rising importance of career adaptability, in other words, we can understand if career adaptability is replacing the role of employability. Lastly, commonality analysis can indicate the commonality shared between the two concepts and if a single and more parsimonious concept can be derived from career adaptability and employability. From an applied perspective, clarifying the commonality shared between career adaptability and perceived employability offers the opportunity for designing career development programs that enhance both career adaptability and employability simultaneously. This may also imply cost savings for the participants and the institutions conducting the program.

Career adaptability and the Mexican context

Career adaptability is a general adaptive resource that comprises a multitude of attitudes, beliefs, and competencies grouped into four dimensions: concern, control, curiosity, and confidence (Savickas, 2013). According to Savickas and Porfeli (2012), concern refers to the ability to plan for future career developments, build a career vision and to prepare

actions to achieve the visions. Control reflects an individuals' decisiveness and the extent of intra personal influence on their situations. Curiosity refers to the tendency to broaden horizons, explore alternative and opportunities regarding one's possible self and/or environment. Lastly, confidence implies the belief in oneself and one's ability to overcome challenges and to achieve goals. In short, career adaptability encompasses planning the future career, making decisions towards achieving the vision, exploring various career options and having the confidence to overcome challenges in order to achieve career goals. These four resources relate to regulatory focus (van Vianen et al., 2012), self-regulation (Creed et al., 2009; Merino-Tejedor et al., 2016) and stress coping (Stoltz et al., 2013). In a sense, career adaptability is a form of proactive coping resource (Klehe et al., 2012), which is future-oriented and involves the use of personal resources, goals setting, and vision realization to overcome challenges (Aspinwall & Taylor, 1997; C. G. Davis & Asliturk, 2011).

Career adaptability is widely assessed using the Career Adapt-Ability Scale – CAAS, which has been validated in many languages and countries and has demonstrated excellent reliability (see Savickas & Porfeli, 2012). Although a validated Spanish translation of the CAAS is available for use in Spain (Merino-Tejedor, Hontangas, & Boada-Grau, 2016), its validity for use in Mexico needs to be addressed because contextual factors such as social-economic differences and labor market contexts can affect the validity of the instrument. Briefly, the Spanish labor market is characterized by extreme market duality and wage rigidity, which led to high levels of temporary employment/short-term contracts, especially among young entrants. This phenomenon is a result of high collective bargaining coverage in Spain (73.1%; Aguirregabiria & Alonso-Borrego, 2014; Peiró, Sora, & Caballer, 2012; Rocha Sánchez, 2012). The Mexican labor market, on the other hand, has a collective bargaining coverage of 9.9% and is characterized by a large share of informal workforce (57% as of 2015; Keese & Pascal, 2016). Informal sector refers to the part of an economy that is usually hidden, not taxed and not monitored by the government (D. Andrews, Sanchéz, & Johansson, 2011). Although there are no definitive measures of informal economy for Spain, it is estimated to be approximately 19% to 22% (Feld & Schneider,

2010). In addition, it has been found that young Mexican with more education has a higher chance to be unemployed (INEGI, 2018). In terms of labor statistics, Mexico has a labor force participation rate for age 25-54 years' old that is 14% lesser than Spain's 87.0% (OECD, 2018), and youth unemployment that is 7% lesser than Spain's 38.6% (ILO, 2018).

Psychosocial model of employability

Similar to career adaptability, employability comprises a multitude of individual characteristics that foster adaptive affect, behavior, and cognition, grouped into three dimensions: personal adaptability, career identity and, human and social capital (Fugate et al., 2004). According to Fugate et al. (2004), personal adaptability refers to the readiness and capacity to change personal factors such as behaviors and thoughts in response to environmental demands. Career identity refers to how individuals define themselves in the career context. It is the driver of career motivations, values, interests, and decisions. Human capital refers to skills and knowledge such as education, training, and competencies. Lastly, social capital refers to the individual's social network that is useful in supporting to gaining/maintaining employment. Like career adaptability, employability supports individual to cope with job loss by taking responsibility to manage one's career (Fugate et al., 2004; McArdle et al., 2007) and is also a form of proactive coping resources. For example, more employable individuals tend to engage in job search activity (when unemployed) and obtain reemployment of higher quality (Fugate et al., 2004).

Among the three dimensions of employability, personal adaptability conceptually shares the most similarity with the conceptualization of career adaptability, as both refer to the capacity to adapt to environmental demands. Studies have shown that personal adaptability indicators such as protean career attitudes, boundaryless mindset, and proactive personality correlate positively with career adaptability (Cai et al., 2015; K. Y. Chan et al., 2015; Öncel, 2014; Tolentino et al., 2014). Among the different indicators, we operationalize personal adaptability using proactive personality, which is defined as the predisposition to initiate action to change one's environment (Bateman & Crant, 1993), because it entails

taking actions to achieve the desired outcome, hence resonating with the concept of career adaptability. For example, studies indicate that proactive individuals tend to seek career opportunities and create work environment that fit their vocational needs (Seibert et al., 1999), take responsibility for managing their career (Hall & Mirvis, 1995), seek information (Seibert, Kraimer, & Crant, 2001) and set goals (Fugate et al., 2004). These characteristics relate to career adaptability dimension of concern (planning for future development, goal setting, and action planning), control (agency and autonomy), and curiosity (openness to explore alternatives and opportunities). The act of taking action to change a situation also demonstrates a certain degree of self-efficacy (confidence).

Besides the willingness and ability to adapt, career adaptability entails the formation of career identity through avenues such as exploring the environment and possible selves, clarifying values and seeking occupational information (Savickas, 2005). Studies have shown that career identity indicators such as vocational identity, identity exploration, career goal decidedness, and career preparedness (comprising career decision making, career confidence and career planning) relate with career adaptability (Hirschi, 2009; Ibarra & Barbulescu, 2010; Negru-Subtirica et al., 2015; Porfeli & Savickas, 2012; Skorikov, 2007; Stringer, Kerpelman, & Skorikov, 2011). Among these different indicators, we operationalize career identity using a career identity scale (González-Romá et al., 2018) that includes items indicative of one's career decidedness, commitment, and motivation.

Methods

Sample description and procedures

The sample includes 160 working young adults aged 20 to 35 years old (M = 28.60, SD = 3.73) comprising of 59.4% females. Among the participants, 60% had a university degree, and 40% had a post-graduate degree.

Data were collected from an online platform between March and May of 2015. An email containing the purpose of the survey on graduates' transition into the labor market and

the link to the online questionnaire was sent to university graduates of several universities. The questionnaire includes questions about graduates' first job, current job, personal factors (such as perceived employability, career adaptability), employment status and various self-rated career success indicators. All participants were guaranteed confidentiality and anonymity.

Measures

Job Satisfaction (JS). General job satisfaction was assessed using four items taken from the measures by Brayfied-Roth (1951). An example item is: "Most days I am enthusiastic about my work." Participants marked their level of agreement on a 5-point Likert scale with response choice of (1) *Very Unsatisfied* to (5) *Very Satisfied*. Scale reliability is .87.

Self-Rated Job Performance (JP). Five items were created to assess general job performance. The five items are: "I achieve the objectives and goals that I had to fulfill in a timely manner," "I took the initiative to carry out my work," "I actively participate in decision making related to my work," "I work without making mistakes," and "I assumed the responsibilities assigned to me." Participants marked their level of agreement on a 10-point Likert scale with response choice of (1) *Very Low* to (5) *Very High*. Exploratory factor analysis using principal axis factoring supported a one-dimensional solution, where one factor explained 41.77% of the variance. The item factor loadings were greater than .49. Scale reliability is .76.

Career Adapt-Abilities Scale (CAAS). Career adaptability was assessed the CAAS-International 2.0 (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012). It contains 24 items divided equally into four subscales that measure the adaptability resources of concern, control, curiosity, and confidence. When data was collected, the Spanish version (Merino-Tejedor et al., 2016) of the scale was not yet available. Therefore, we had two individuals who were fluent in both Spanish and English to translate the items into Spanish independently. Following, two organizational psychologists reviewed the translation, compared and modified the items to

ensure cultural appropriateness and comparability with the original English version. Lastly, back translation took place to check if the translated scales corresponded with the original scale (Van Widenfelt, Treffers, De Beurs, Siebelink, & Koudijs, 2005). Participants responded to each item using a Likert scale from 1 *(not strong)* to 5 *(strongest)*. Scale reliabilities of the four subscales are .89 for concern, .89 for control, .91 for curiosity, and .91 for confidence. Reliability for overall CAAS is .96. Annex Ii presents the scale items in Spanish.

Employability (EMP). Employability is operationalized based on the psychosocial model of employability (Fugate et al., 2004). The employability dimensions of personal adaptability and career identity were measured using Proactive personality and Career identity scales respectively (McArdle et al., 2007). Participants responded to each item in the two scales using a Likert scale from 1 *(strongly disagree)* to 5 *(strongly agree)*. Reliability for the composite PE scale is .86.

Proactive personality (PP). **The degree of proactiveness** was measured using five items from the 10-item proactive personality scale by Bateman and Crant (1993). An example item is “Nothing is more exciting than seeing my ideas turn into reality.” Reliability for the proactive personality sub-scale is .83.

Career Identity (CI). The extent individuals identify with their career was measured using a four-item career identity scale (González-Romá et al., 2018). An example item is “I have a high motivation to develop the career I desire.” Reliability for the career identity sub-scale is .82.

Analysis

To ascertain the structure of CAAS, we performed a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) on the second-order factor model in Mplus Version 7.4 (Muthén & Muthén, 2012). As 5-point Likert scale was used to measure the scale items, there are sufficient categories to consider the scale items continuous measures (Rhemtulla, Brosseau-Liard, & Savalei, 2012).

Therefore, we used a maximum likelihood estimator – MLMV that is robust to multivariate non-normality for the analysis (Muthén & Muthén, 2012). To assess model fit, we utilized multiple goodness-of-fit indices, namely the comparative fit index (CFI), Tucker-Lewis index (TLI), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) and standardized root mean square residual (SRMR). For CFI and TLI, values above .9 are recommended as indications of a good fit, while values less than .06 indicate a good fit for RMSEA and SRMR (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

After ascertaining the validity of CAAS, we estimate variable importance through relative weights analysis and commonality analysis. Relative weights analysis (RWA) is a technique for calculating the relative importance of correlated predictors. We conducted RWA using the R script developed by Tonidandel and LeBreton (2015) from the RWA-Web. RWA breaks down the total variance (R^2) predicted in a regression model into weights that reflect the proportional contribution of the various (correlated) predictor variables (Tonidandel & LeBreton, 2015). In addition, RWA determines the significance of the relative weights by comparing the weights produced by the predictors to a randomly generated (meaningless) variable (Tonidandel & LeBreton, 2015). This significance test enables us to gauge the practical utility of a variable, i.e., if the predictor is meaningful or not. For example, a variable may explain a small portion of predictable variance yet be a meaningful predictor if the weights of the other predictors in the model are not significant, or a variable may account for a large portion of variance but is of little practical utility if its weight is not significant (see Cortina & Landis, 2009). Commonality analysis (CA), a different relative variable importance technique is conducted using the SPSS script developed by Nimon (2010). It estimates the relative importance of correlated variables by partitioning the regression effect into constituent, non-overlapping parts (Thompson, 2006). The partitioning process produces unique and common effects. Unique effects refer to the amount of variance unique to each predictor while common effects refer to the amount of variance common to groups (two or more) of predictors; in our case, there is only one group – CAAS and EMP. The sum of unique and common effect – total effect refers to the total variance explained by the

predictors in the outcome variable (Nimon, 2010; Nimon & Oswald, 2013). Unlike RWA, CA will enable us to gauge how much of the variance that predicts the outcomes are common to CAAS and EMP, hence indicating the amount of shared similarity.

Results

Descriptive statistics

The descriptive statistics and correlations among variables were presented in Table 6.1. All variables in the study demonstrated sufficient reliability with alpha ranging between .76 and .96, and univariate normality with skew and kurtosis within ± 2 (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2014). Skew and kurtosis for the majority of the variables were below 1.0 except for skewness of self-rated performance (-1.52), which is expected of self-rated performance measures. Scale reliabilities of the CAAS and its subscales were between .89 and .96. The CAAS items' mean and standard deviation (Table 2) suggest that the typical response was in the range of *very strong (4)* to *Strongest (5).*

Table 6.1
Descriptive Statistics and Correlation between variables in Study 1

	M	SD	Gender [a]	Edu [a]	Age	CAAS	EMP	JS	JP
Gender	-	-	--						
Edu	-	-	0.02 [b]	--					
Age	28.60	3.73	.01	.44**	--				
CAAS	4.33	.58	.01	-.04	.01	--			
EMP	4.24	.57	.02	-.04	.06	.67**	--		
JS	3.84	.98	.04	.04	.18*	.25**	.41**	--	
JP	8.79	.95	-.10	.13	.16*	.41**	.38**	.282**	--

[a] Spearman Coefficient (for correlation between ordinal and continuous variables) ; [b] Cramer's V (for correlation between 2 ordinal variables)
* Significant at p < .05 ; ** Significant at p < .01
Ordinal Variables are: Gender (0 = Female, 1 = Male), Education (1 = Vocational Training, 2 = University, 3 = Postgraduate)

Table 6.2
Standardized loading, Means, and SD of the items in CAAS

Construct		Item (First-order Indicators)	Mean	SD	Loading*
Concern	1	Thinking about what my future will be like	4.19	.88	.66
	2	Realizing that today's choices shape my future	4.32	.81	.74
	3	Preparing for the future	4.24	.87	.82
	4	Becoming aware of the educational and career choices that I must make	4.22	.86	.80
	5	Planning how to achieve my goals	4.03	.98	.73
	6	Concerned about my career	4.15	.91	.78
Control	7	Keeping upbeat	4.08	1.00	.64
	8	Making decisions by myself	4.43	.73	.81
	9	Taking responsibility for my actions	4.59	.65	.78
	10	Sticking up for my beliefs	4.45	.77	.82
	11	Counting on myself	4.38	.85	.78
	12	Doing what's right for me	4.51	.73	.78
Curiosity	13	Exploring my surroundings	4.29	.84	.76
	14	Looking for opportunities to grow as a person	4.35	.86	.69
	15	Investigating options before making a choice	4.33	.77	.82
	16	Observing different ways of doing things.	4.28	.83	.87
	17	Probing deeply into questions I have	4.14	.94	.85
	18	Becoming curious about new opportunities	4.34	.82	.79
Confidence	19	Performing tasks efficiently	4.39	.67	.76
	20	Taking care to do things well	4.44	.71	.70
	21	Learning new skills.	4.38	.76	.82
	22	Working up to my ability	4.41	.70	.82
	23	Overcoming obstacles	4.48	.78	.83
	24	Solving problems	4.51	.74	.79
Construct		**Construct (second-order indicators)**	**Mean**	**SD**	**Loading***
Adaptability	1	Concern	4.19	.71	.79
	2	Control	4.41	.64	.92
	3	Curiosity	4.29	.70	.88
	4	Confidence	4.43	.60	.90
		Overall Career Adapt-Ability score	4.33	.58	--

*Note: Factor loadings are statistically significant at p=.01

Factorial validity of CAAS

The multidimensional hierarchical CAAS model was built with the four subscales as first-order latent factors (concern, control, curiosity, and confidence) followed by a second-order general career adapt-ability factor. The multidimensional hierarchical model presented a boundary acceptable fit (χ^2 = 344.64, *df = 248,* RMSEA = .05, SRMR = .06, CFI = .89, TLI = .87). After adding error covariance between item pairs 24-23 and 8-9, which were likely measurement errors due to overlap in item contents, the model fit improved (χ^2 = 317.28, *df = 246,* RMSEA = .04, SRMR = .06, CFI = .92, TLI = .91). Similar modifications were also performed in previous CAAS validation (Merino-Tejedor et al., 2016). The standardized loadings (Table 2) suggest that most items are strong indicators of the first-order factors (ranged from .64 to .87) which are subsequently strong indicators of the second-order career adapt-ability construct (ranged from .79 to .92). Overall, the CFA showed that the data from the CAAS-Mexico fits the theoretical model well and that a global score can be used to operationalize the construct of career adaptability.

Relative importance analysis

Before conducting the relative importance analysis, we conducted linear regressions to ascertain that the regression model is valid. We present the outcome of the linear regression together with outcomes of RWA and CA in Table 6.3. The regression analysis indicates that the weighted linear combination of CAAS and EMP explained 16.8% of the variance (R^2 = .17) in JS, and explained 18.5% of the variance (R^2 = .19) in JP. Regression results also indicate that EMP was a significant predictor of JS and JP ($p < .05$), whereas CAAS was only a significant predictor of JP ($p < .05$).

Results of RWA revealed that i) EMP (RW = .14, CI = .05, .24) explained a statistically significant amount of variance in JS but not CAAS (RW = .03, CI = -.01, .09), ii) both EMP (RW = .08, CI = .01, .19) and CAAS (RW = .13, CI = .00, .21) explained a statistically significant amount of variance in JP. Both regression and RWA results indicate that CAAS is not a significant predictor of JS although it is a predictor of JP. This is in contrast with three-

wave cross-lagged findings by Fiori et al., (2015). We investigated further and found that in the absence of EMP, CAAS does predict JS (β = .25, R^2= .25, $F_{(1,158)}$ = 10.77, p < .001), which can explain the inconsistent finding. More importantly, based on the weights, RWA results indicated that EMP (RW = .14) is more important than CAAS (RW =.03) in predicting JS and lastly, iv) CAAS (RW = .10) is slightly more important than EMP (RW = .08) in predicting JP.

Pertaining to commonality shared between the two variables, results of the CA revealed that i) CAAS and EMP shares 37.4% of the variance when predicting JS and ii) 66.39% when predicting JP. The breakdown of the effects (see Table 6.4) indicates that when predicting JS, 62% of the total effect is unique to EMP, and when predicting JP, 22.30% is unique to CAAS, and 11.32% is unique to EMP. Besides corroborating with the importance ranking from RWA, the CA results also indicate that when predicting JS, employability resources have a bigger predictive role and that career adaptability resources appeared to be almost a 'subset' of employability. When predicting JP, the resources common to both career adaptability and employability have a large predictive role. Overall, the CA results indicate that although CAAS and EMP have different roles in predicting JS and JP, there does exist a certain amount of overlap in the activation of resources.

Table 6.3
Summary of Linear regression, Relative weights analysis and Commonality Analysis

				Relative Weights Analysis			**Commonality Analysis**			
Predictor	*b*	β	*p*	RW	LCI ; UCI	RS-RW%	Unique	Common	Total	% of R^2
Criterion = JS (R^2 = .17 ; F[2,157] = 15.83; p < .001)										
Intercept	.95									
CAAS	-.07	-.04	.69	.03	-.01 ; .09	19.27	.00	.06	.06	35.29%
EMP	.75	.43	.00	.14	.05 ; .24	80.73	.10	.06	.16	94.12%
Criterion = JP (R^2= .19; F[2,157] = 17.76; p < .001)										
Intercept	5.46									
CAAS	.45	.27	.01	.10	.00 ; .21	55.49	.04	.12	.16	84.21%
EMP	.33	.2	.04	.08	.01 ; .19	44.51	.02	.12	.14	73.68%

Note: *b*=unstandardized regression weight, β =standardized regression weight, RW = raw relative weight (within rounding error raw weights will sum to R^2), LCI;UCI= lower bound and upper bound confidence interval used to test the statistical significance of raw weight, RS-RW relative weight rescaled as a percentage of predicted variance in the criterion variable attributed to each predictor (within rounding error rescaled weights sum to 100 %),Unique = predictor's unique effect, Common = Σ predictor's common effects. Total = Unique + Common. % of R^2 = Total/ R^2

Table 6.4
Summary of commonality matrix

Predictors	Criterion = JS		Criterion =JP	
	Commonality coefficient	% of Total	Commonality coefficient	% of Total
Unique to CAAS	.001	.513	.041	22.296
Unique to EMP	.104	61.996	.021	11.315
Common to CAAS-EMP	.063	37.491	.123	66.390
Total	.168	100.000	.185	100.000

Discussion

Advancement in technology and fluctuation in global economic situations shifted the business landscape and nature of work and intensified global competition. To be successful in such an environment, literature posits that individuals need to be career adaptable. The rising attention on the concept of career adaptability prompted the study to understand if career adaptability is replacing employability as a construct important to career success in the twenty-first century. To achieve the goal, we first validated the instrument – CAAS in Mexico. Following, we examined the relative importance of career adaptability and employability when predicting subjective career success indicators of job satisfaction and job performance, through relative weights analysis (RWA) and commonality analysis (CA).

Results from CFA indicated that the overall scale and four subscales of CAAS demonstrate good internal consistency estimates and a coherent multidimensional, hierarchical structure that fits the theoretical model of career adaptability. These results should support the conclusion that the Mexican form has adequate psychometric properties and it can be a valid tool for measuring career adaptability in the Mexican population. Although this validation bridged the gap in the accessibility of CAAS in Hispanic-America, its validation prior to use in other Hispanic-American counties is nevertheless still recommended as contextual factors can affect the validity of the instrument. Future studies can also consider studying measurement invariance of the Spanish version of the CAAS across various Hispanophone countries. The establishment of measurement invariance allows for meaningful cross-country comparison and can be a springboard for exploring

factors that explain cross-cultural differences in career adaptability (Steinmetz, Schmidt, Tina-Booh, Wieczorek, & Schwartz, 2009; Van de Vijver & Tanzer, 2004; Vandenberg & Lance, 2000).

Regression and RWA results indicated career adaptability does not contribute to the perception of JS. Similar to the existing studies (Fiori et al., 2015; Santilli et al., 2014), an additional regression analysis revealed that career adaptability indeed does predict JS but in the absence of employability. According to the CA results, shared resources common to both career adaptability and employability explained about 6.3% of the variance in JS, and the unique effects of career adaptability and employability explained about 1% and 10.4% of the variance in JS respectively. Therefore, we conjure that the career adaptability resources that predicted JS were a part of employability resources. In this respect, career adaptability can be said to be a subset of employability, because almost all the resources that contributed to job satisfaction were employability resources.

In contrast to the findings from JS, results indicated that both career adaptability and employability contributes to the prediction of perceived JP, with career adaptability (RW=.10) having a slightly larger role than employability (RW = .08). Of most interest is that the commonality between the two concepts contributed to 12.3% of the variance in JP, and it amounts to 66% of the total variance, which indicates that the two concepts are rather similar and hence, either of the concepts alone may suffice in predicting JP. Although including both career adaptability and employability in predicting JP may account for all 18.5% of the variance, it might be superfluous as the unique contribution of employability accounts to about an addition 2.1% of the variance.

Overall, the results indicate that although career adaptability and employability have different roles in predicting JS and JP, there does exist a certain amount of overlap, although the amount of overlaps differs. The results strengthen the notion that career adaptability and employability are psychological and career identity career resources (Hirschi, 2012). This is because employability was operationalized based on the psychosocial model of employability (Fugate et al., 2004) using proactive personality scale (representing

psychological career resource) and career identity scale (representing career identity career resource). The commonality shared also highlight the plausibility of combining employability and career adaptability into a single more parsimonious concept. To further enrich the knowledge, we suggest future research to explore the relative importance and commonality using other indicators of employability such as protean career mindset (Hall, 1996), boundaryless mindset and career self-efficacy (McArdle et al., 2007). This is because the psychosocial model of employability refers to a very broad base of psychological and career identity resources and unlike career adaptability, definitive indicators or sub-scales for the model are lacking. In view of this, future research can also consider exploring relative importance and commonality using other operationalizations of employability such as the dispositional or competence approach (Fugate & Kinicki, 2008; Rothwell, Herbert, & Rothwell, 2008; Van Der Heijde & Van Der Heijden, 2006).

In sum, we gather that i) despite the raising attention on the concept of career adaptability, employability is still a relevant concept in today's labor market, ii) employability might be a more relevant predictor of job satisfaction while iii) career adaptability may be slightly more important than employability in predicting self-perceived job performance, and lastly iv) regardless of relative importance, career adaptability and employability do share a certain degree of commonality although they are activated differently when predicting different career success indicators. In view of this, institutions offering career services can consider including activities that jointly develop employability and career adaptability. Such joint development activities can plausibly offer a more holistic development as it incorporates two additional two types of career resources - psychological and career identity resources on top of human capital resources (ILO & OECD, 2016; Kluve, 2014). It can be expected that such joint interventions can improve not only quality of work life, but also support young people to cope with unemployment, obtaining quality employment, and to cope with uncertainty and changes at work. The benefits are manifold - enhancing employability and career adaptability simultaneously, and cost/time effectiveness for both career practitioners and participants.

Limitations and conclusions

The findings and implications discussed in the above need to be interpreted in light of the limitations of this study. First, this study involved single-source, self-reporting data which expose the results to a higher risk of common method bias (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). In addition, our results are specific to self-rated measure of job performance and may not be reflective of the various dimensions of job performance (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002; Viswesvaran, Schmidt, & Ones, 2005). The inclusion of a multi-source/multi-rater measure of performance (such as supervisor evaluation of performance) can plausibly enrich our knowledge in this field, either by strengthening our findings or by offering an alternative pattern. Hence, future studies can consider measuring supervisor-rated performance or performance measure such as organizational citizenship behavior. Second, the measures were assessed at one-time point, i.e. cross-sectional, which warrants precaution about any time-lagged or causal inferences from the data. For example, we cannot conclude that job performance or job satisfaction increased in response to employability and career adaptability, only that job performance and job satisfaction was higher when employability or career adaptability is high. Nonetheless, we believe that our findings are still meaningful because i) there are existing studies that have ascertained the relationships between the variable of interests (Fiori et al., 2015; Gamboa et al., 2009; Ohme & Zacher, 2015; Santilli et al., 2014) and ii) this is an initial attempt to explore the relative importance and commonality empirically.

In sum, our research contributed evidence in support of the reliability and validity of the CAAS and its utility across different a cultural context, i.e., Mexico, and offered a validated CAAS for other Hispanic-America countries. This study presented initial evidence indicating that both career adaptability and employability are important to career success, i.e., the concept of employability is still relevant amidst the rising importance of career adaptability, and its role is not being replaced by career adaptability. By empirically demonstrating the commonality shared (although to a different extent) between career adaptability and employability when predicting career success, this study highlights the opportunity for

designing career development programs that enhance both career adaptability and employability simultaneously. The inclusion of career adaptability training in employability programs offers many advantages for both the clients and the participants. Lastly, it also indicated that there might be an opportunity to derive a single and more parsimonious concept by combining employability and career adaptability.

CHAPTER SEVEN (Study II)

FAT COWS SKINNY COWS:

THE ROLE OF PERCEIVED EMPLOYABILITY ON JOB INSECURITY AND WELL-BEING IN DIFFERING LABOR CONDITIONS

Introduction

Against the background of rapid globalization, digitalization, and unpredictable global economy, organizations in the current era are constantly reorganizing and restructuring to remain competitive. The pervasive organizational changes subject job positions to unpredictability and expose employees to higher job insecurity than before. Job insecurity (JI) is the perception of a potential involuntary job loss (Silla et al., 2009; Sverke et al., 2002). It is a widely discussed stressor in the 21st-century world of work (De Cuyper, Baillien, et al., 2009) as it has detrimental impacts on workers' well-being and performance (De Witte et al., 2016), organizational performance, and productivity (G. H. L. Cheng & Chan, 2008; Probst et al., 2007; Reisel, Probst, Chia, Maloles, & König, 2010)

With the rise in JI, the notion of perceived employability became more salient as it is purported to be a form of employment security and a coping mechanism for JI (P. Brown, Hesketh, & Wiliams, 2003; Fugate & Kinicki, 2008). Perceived employability (PE) refers to the self-appraisal of one's capacity and chances of success in maintaining or obtaining a job in both the internal and external labor market (Berntson & Marklund, 2007; Forrier & Sels, 2003b; Rothwell & Arnold, 2007). According to Rothwell and Arnold (2007), it is possible for individuals to self-evaluate their employability based on market demands, independently of one's employment status. In other words, measures of PE appraise both internal and external opportunities for maintaining or gaining a job, and it also combines self-awareness of personal resources leading to an increased probability of remaining in employment after taking into considerations labor market opportunities and challenges. Following Silla et al.'s (2009) debate, we focused on the subjective approach to employability because i) the interpretation of reality affect one's feelings and behavior, ii) the reactions to stressors relies on one's perceptual appraisal of the stressors, and iii) it tends to take into account both contextual and individual factors when predicting employment (see Silla et al., 2009, p.741).

Moreover, PE has been found to reduce the fear of being unemployed (Berntson, Bernhard-Oettel, & De Cuyper, 2007), and to promote job satisfaction and general well-being

(Briscoe et al., 2012; De Cuyper, Notelaers, et al., 2009). Although the role of PE and JI on outcomes such as life satisfaction (LS) and well-being (WB) has gathered much attention in recent decades, its findings are rather inconsistent. For example, studies are suggesting that JI mediates (figure 7.1a) the relationship between PE and WB (De Cuyper, Bernhard-Oettel, et al., 2008), and studies are also suggesting that PE moderates (figure 7.1b) the impact of JI on both WB and LS (Silla et al., 2009).

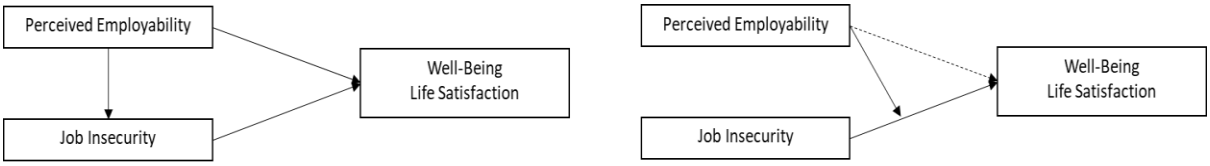

Figure 7.1a. Mediating Model

Figure 7.1b. Moderating Model

Figure 7.1. Comparison of the competing models tested in the study

It is important to clarify which model is more relevant in predicting WB and LS because JI will continue to intensify in the future labor market (Chung & Mau, 2014; De Witte, 2005). In addition, fluctuations in economic and labor conditions can affect perceived employability and job insecurity in individuals (Lübke & Erlinghagen, 2014). To this end, studies that compare models and results across different economic and/or labor conditions are rare. To our knowledge, a recent study (De Cuyper et al., 2018) examined the role of JI and PE after the 2008 economic crisis and also compared the results across two dissimilar labor context (Mediterranean (e.g., Greece, Spain, and Portugal) and Continental Europe (e.g., Belgium, France and Germany)). Although the study compared results across two dissimilar labor context and using samples collected after the 2008 crisis, the study, however, does not clarify the role of perceived employability and job insecurity in predicting life and job satisfaction.

In the same direction, this study compares results across two dissimilar contexts in the same country. However, the aim is to clarify which model is more relevant by testing two competing models and by using samples from the same country, i.e., two Spanish cross-

sectional data collected in the year 2008 (normal labor condition) and 2011 (harsh labor condition). By unearthing the model appropriate for the different conditions, this study attempts to update and deepen our understanding of the field. In this paper, we focus our attention on the young job people because i) they tend to be engaged in temporary/flexible work contracts where job insecurity is of concern and ii) JI can negatively impact the attitudes and career development of young job people (Peiró et al., 2012; Sora, Gonzalez-Morales, Caballer, & Peiró, 2011). In the following pages of the introduction, we will briefly present the Spanish labor context, followed by a short review of the studies and theories that supported the mediation and moderation model. After which, we will present the methods and results.

The Spanish Context - fat cows and skinny cows

Impacts of economic events on Spain in the last decade offer an opportunity to understand the role of PE and JI on WB and LS in differing labor conditions, which would otherwise be unreachable. In the years between 1997 and 2007 (known as *las vacas gordas* – “fat cows”) the construction and property industries in Spain flourished. Spain experienced intense economic growth and had achieved a GDP per capita of 105% of the EU average (Eurostat, 2016). Despite the growing and well-performing economy, the Spanish economy took a sharp downturn during the 2008 economic crisis; the construction and property industry bubble burst and employment crisis ensued. Repercussions of the economic breakdown include a decline in the National Gross Product (GNP), deep changes in the financial system, escalation of the National Debt, and austerity policies. Among all, one of the key implication of the economic crisis was exacerbating unemployment situations (Dávila-Quintana & Lopez-Valcarcel, 2009); “*the fat cows are no longer fat*.” Youth unemployment especially exacerbated from 24.5% in 2008 to 46.2% in 2011 (Eurostat, 2018b). The sharp increase in youth unemployment was partly due to the long-standing labor market issues such as extreme market duality and volatility, and high levels of temporary employment especially among young entrants (Aguirregabiria & Alonso-Borrego,

2014; Peiró et al., 2012; Rocha Sánchez, 2012). Statistics have revealed that as high as 60% of young Spanish are engaged under temporary (precarious) contract as it facilitated their entry into the labor market (European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions, 2013). Unfortunately, the extreme market duality also facilitated their exit as many Spanish companies exercise external flexibility to cope with the market movements. In other words, instead of adjusting wages or working hours, companies reduce labor cost by laying off workers, especially temporary workers (European Commission, 2010; Rocha Sánchez, 2012).

As the recession and job market deterioration persisted, obtaining a job became almost six times harder in 2013 than in 2008, and market overcrowding continued due to low job creation (European Commission, 2014). The last labor market reform implemented by the Spanish Government at the beginning of 2012 aimed to reduce market dualism by focusing on reforming internal flexibility and collective bargaining (OECD, 2014). Although the reform has seen some reduction in dismissal cost for permanent workers and widened the causes of fair dismissals, the use of temporary contracts has not been limited (Aguirregabiria & Alonso-Borrego, 2014). As such, extreme labor market duality still prevails today, and job insecurity remains high for young entrants. In such context, our paper aims to compare the relationships among JI, PE, LS, and WB among young people in two different labor market conditions; one characterized by high youth employment (*fat cows*) at the other characterized by very high youth unemployment (*skinny cows*).

The mediation model

Several theoretical frameworks such as the Dual Labour Market Theory (Doeringer & Piore, 1971) and Human Capital Theory (Becker, 1975) have suggested PE as an antecedent of job insecurity. In general, these theories point towards the role of human capital in the form of education, training, and experience that support individuals in gaining secure employment positions (Peiró et al., 2012). Social theories such as the Appraisal Theory (Arnold, 1960) also suggest some support for the above premise. For example, the

positive appraisal of one's employability can promote the feeling of being in control of one's career, which, in turn, can reduce the fear of job loss. In contrast, the negative appraisal of one's employability can lead to a higher level of JI, which can subsequently cause higher stress and reduce work performance. To date, various studies have found support for PE as an antecedent of JI and the role of JI as a mediator (De Cuyper, Bernhard-Oettel, et al., 2008; De Cuyper, Raeder, Van der Heijden, & Wittekind, 2012; Peiró et al., 2012). For instance, De Cuyper et al. (2008) found that the relationship between employability and well-being to be mediated by job insecurity and Peiro et al. (2011) found that employability predicted job insecurity which in turn predicted work involvement.

The moderation model

On the other hand, Silla et al. (2009) and Green (2011) found that PE buffers the detrimental effect of JI on WB and LS. These scholars exerted that the feeling of being in control may reduce the negative consequence of JI. One of the theoretical frameworks that explain the interaction effect of PE and JI is the Job Demand-Resources (JD-R) Model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). According to the model, any aspects of a job that require prolonged efforts or skills from the employees are job demands; this implies physiological and/or psychological cost to the employee. Along this line, JI is commonly taken as a form of job demand as can bring about a prolonged sense of unpredictability and uncontrollability (psychological cost), which cause stress and discomfort (physiological cost) (Sverke et al., 2002; Vander Elst, 2013). On the other hand, any aspects of the job that enables employees to complete tasks, achieve goals, continuously learn, and develop are job resources. PE is a job resource because it is in part a self-appraisal of one's resource for optimal functional at a job (De Cuyper, De Witte, Kinnunen, & Nätti, 2010; Lu et al., 2015). The JD-R model suggests that job resources (i.e., PE) can reduce job demands (i.e., JI) and may also buffer (i.e., an interaction effect) against the cost associated with the demand such as burnout and well-being. To date, various studies have ascertained the JI-PE relationship through the JD-

R model (De Cuyper, Baillien, et al., 2009; Silla et al., 2009; Van Den Broeck, Van Ruysseveldt, Vanbelle, & De Witte, 2013).

In addition, studies have found that PE can give individuals hope and optimism (Baruch, 2001; De Witte, De Cuyper, Vander Elst, Vanbelle, & Niesen, 2012; Fugate et al., 2004). These findings further reinforce the role of PE as a coping mechanism because according to the Conservation of Resources Theory (COR), psychosocial resources (such as PE) can generate new resources and facilitate the acquisition more psychosocial resources (Hobfoll, 2002). For example, Rossier (2015) indicated that career adaptability could be a resource to enhance one's employability during harsh labor conditions. Along with this, we believe that individuals with higher PE may also have more resources to help them cope better with JI during harsh conditions. Therefore, we postulate that the moderation model may be more salient during harsh labor conditions.

Method

Study design and procedure

This study reports data from two cross-sectional samples of young people collected three years apart in 2008 and 2011. Data for this study was obtained in 2008 and 2011 between May and June, by the Observatory of Young People's Transition into the Labor Market (Observatorio de Inserción Laboral de los Jóvenes; Fundación Bancaja e IVIE, 2012) in Spain. The surveys targeted only young people aged between 16 to 30 who are entering the labor markets (i.e., finding the first job or looking for a job) in the last five years before the survey in 2008 and 2011. Respondents were pooled from 34 cities and small towns from a total of 17 Spanish provinces and can be said to be representative of both urban and non-urban areas of Spain. Respondents were first contacted through a telephone call from which consent to participate was obtained. After which, a face-to-face interview was carried out either at the interviewee's home or a mutually agreed location.

Sample

3000 and 2000 young people were interviewed in 2008 and 2011 respectively. 52.94% of the respondents from the 2008 survey (Sample 1) and 44.1% from the 2011 survey (Sample 2) were employed at the time of the survey and therefore qualified to participate in this study. This percentage was close to the population percentage of young Spaniards in employment in 2008 (52.30%) and 2011 (38.70%) (Eurostat, 2018b). To facilitate comparison, Table 7.1 presents the demographics of the two samples, together with the demographics of the Spanish population.

Table 7.1
Demographics of Sample 1 and Sample 2 together with comparative information of the Spanish population

	Study Sample		Spanish Population[a]	
	2008	2011	2008	2011
No. of respondents qualified for this study	**1485**	**848**	--	--
Percentage of young people in employment	52.97%	44.10%	52.30%	38.70%
Mean Age	23.39	25.06		
(SD)	(3.54)	(3.50)		
Gender				
Female (%)	57.66%	51.71%	45.69%	48.86%
Male (%)	42.34%	48.29%	54.24%	51.23%
Education attainment				
Basic Education	26.30%	26.20%	39%	37%
High School / Vocational Training	34.90%	27.90%	29%	27%
University degree and above	38.42%	45.79%	32%	36%
Type of Employment				
Temporary Contracts	56.03%	51.53%	46%[b]	47%[b]
Town /City Size				
< 50000 inhabitants	48.60%	45.22%	--	--
50000< inhabitants < 500000	29.96%	27.90%	--	--
> 500000 inhabitants	21.44%	26.88%	--	--

[a] (Eurostat, 2018b) unless otherwise indicated
[b] (Eurostat, 2018a)

Measures

All variables, except for Life Satisfaction and control variables, were measured with statements where the participants marked their level of agreement on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (rarely) to 5 (often).

Job Insecurity (JI). Perceptions of potential job loss were measured using three items from De Witte's (2000) job insecurity scale. An example item is: “There are possibilities that I will lose my job soon.” The Cronbach’s alpha coefficient was .91 and .93 for 2008 and 2011 respectively.

Perceived Employability (PE). Perceptions about one’s possibilities in the current labor market were assessed using three items from the “Employment Outlook” scale in the Career Exploration Survey (Stumpf, Colarelli, & Hartman, 1983). An example item is: “In the current labor market, it seems possible to find work for which I am prepared or have experience.” Scale reliabilities for 2008 and 2011 were .78 and .71 respectively.

Psychological Well-being (WB). Psychological health was measured using four items from the 12-item General Health Questionnaire (GHQ-12; Goldberg, 1978). An example item is: “I am constantly under strain.” Scale reliabilities for 2008 and 2011 were .74 and .75 respectively.

Life Satisfaction (LS). Using a 10-point scale (1= very unsatisfied, 10= very satisfied), participants responded to the question “How satisfied do you currently feel about your life in general?”

Control Variables. We measured demographics such as age, gender (1= male, 2= female), minimum education level (1= Basic education, 2= High school, 3= University), employment type (0= temporary, 1= permanent, 2= others), city/town size (1= < 50000 inhabitant, 2= 50000 < Population < 500000, 3= > 500000), and lastly prior work experiences (in months). We considered employment type as a control because studies

have shown differences in JI among permanent and temporary employees (Bernhard-Oettel, Cuyper, Murphy, & Connelly, 2017). Furthermore, Spanish organizations are known to exercise external flexibility rather than internal flexibility when coping with market movements (European Commission, 2010; Rocha Sánchez, 2012); thus, we take into consideration employment type as a control. City/town size was considered as a control because more populated regions tend to have more varied labor market than sparsely populated regions (Berntson et al., 2006), which may influence the perception and experience of job insecurity. We also considered prior work experiences because based on the human capital perspective, work experience can signal one's experience and knowledge beyond formal education (Tesluk & Jacobs, 1998), hence giving individuals higher employment prospects (Qenani, MacDougall, & Sexton, 2014) and in a way, influence the experience of job insecurity.

Analysis

All the analyses were carried out in AMOS 23.0 (Arbuckle, 2014) using maximum likelihood estimation with bootstrapping of 2000 samples to obtain bias-corrected estimates and probability in all the analysis. We bootstrap because data measured using a 5-point Likert scale tend to violate normality assumptions. We utilized multiple goodness-of-fit indices to access model fit, namely the comparative fit index (CFI), Tucker-Lewis index (TLI), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) and standardized root mean square residual (SRMR). CFI and TLI values above .90 are recommended as indications of a good fit, while values less than .06 indicate a good fit for RMSEA and SRMR (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

First, we conducted Harman's one-factor test (Podsakoff et al., 2003) to evaluate potential common method variance induced by the use of single informants. The basic assumption of Harman's one-factor test is that if a substantial amount of common method variance is present, one general factor will account for the majority of the covariance among the measures, with all items loading on that single factor. Next, we conducted a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to assess the validity of the measurement model involving the three

scales used in our study (JI, PE, and WB). The measurement model excludes LS as it is a single item measure. Following, we assessed measurement equivalence of the scales used in the two samples. Literature has underscored the importance of establishing measurement equivalence for meaningful and reliable interpretation of group difference (such as mean scores and regression coefficient), even for groups from within the same culture (Steinmetz et al., 2009; Vandenberg & Lance, 2000). In measurement equivalence analysis, we progressively subject parameters (factor loading, indicator intercepts, residual variances, structural covariance, and structural means) to equality constraints, with each successive steps retaining the constraints from the previous. With each step, a change in CFI (ΔCFI) of less than or equal to .01 indicates invariance (Cheung & Rensvold, 2002).

Finally, after establishing equivalence, we tested the alternative models through multi-group (Group 1 = 2008 sample and Group 2 = 2011 sample) mediation and moderation analyses using structural equation modeling (SEM). As SEM uses multiple indicators to estimate the effects of latent variable and accounts for measurement error (Raykov & Marcoulides, 2006), the estimates of the relationships can be more accurate than regression analysis (McCoach et al., 2007). The traditional mediation process includes testing for a significant total effect (path from predictor to outcome variable - ***c***) prior to testing for mediation, however updates in the field have recommended dropping the practice because mediation (indirect effects) can be present in the absence of a total or direct effect (Rucker et al., 2011). Instead, Rucker et al. (2011) emphasize that the test for mediation should be guided by theory regardless of the significance of the total (c) or indirect effect (c'). In the case of this study, there is sufficient theoretical and empirical support that suggest mediation effect (De Cuyper et al., 2008; Peiró et al., 2012; De Cuyper et al., 2012b), and hence a valid mediation study. Rucker et al. (2011) further recommend a focus on the presence and magnitude of the indirect effects for a test of mediation rather than on concluding *partial* or *full* mediation, as they can be misleading. Taken together, conditions for mediation are: i) a significant path from the predictor to the mediator (***a***), ii) a significant path from the mediator to the outcome variable (***b***), and iii) a significant indirect effect (***a*** x ***b***) (Rucker et al., 2011).

Nonetheless, the test for total effect was included in this study as it would be interesting to understand if perceived employability predicts well-being and life satisfaction differently in different labor conditions. Control variables were regressed on the mediator and outcome variables.

Conducting multi-group moderation (latent variable interaction) requires an additional process to create the interaction term through the residual centering approach, also known as orthogonalizing (Little et al., 2006). First, in SPSS, we multiplied the three uncentered indicators of the moderator (PE) with the three uncentered indicators of the predictor variable (JI). This multiplication produced nine product terms. Second, we regressed each of the nine product terms on all moderator and predictor indicators and saved the nine residuals from the nine regressions. These nine residuals then formed the indicators items for the latent interaction term in SEM. Third, in AMOS, we built the moderation model with the latent interaction term, latent predictor variable (JI), latent moderator variable (PE), and the latent outcome variable (WB). Following, we specified error covariance between interaction indicators obtained from the multiplication of the same first-order effect items. For example, error variances of PE1JI1 were allowed to correlate with error variances of PE1JI2, PE1JI3, PE2JI1, and PE3JI1 while the correlations of PE1JI1 with other error variances of interaction indicators were constrained to 0. Lastly, we ensured that there is no correlation between the latent interaction term with the moderator nor predictor latent variable. For moderation analysis, the control variables were regressed on the outcome variables. The minimal condition for moderation is a significant interaction effect and a significant main effect of the predictor on the outcome variable.

Results

Preliminary analysis

Table 7.2 presents the means, standard deviations, and correlations for the study variables. In sample 1, skew and kurtosis of the four scales ranged from -.69 to .66 and -.20

to 1.59, respectively. In sample 2, skew and kurtosis ranged from -.92 to .30 and -1.15 to 2.21, respectively. As the sample size is large, standard errors tend to be small and consequently, small deviations from normality will tend to be significant. Therefore, we examined normality graphs (p-p plots), skew, and kurtosis to determine normality (Field, 2005a). The graphs indicate normality for all the scales, although the kurtosis of the LS scale is slightly more than the recommended value of 2 (Garson, 2012). As literature indicate that substantial departure from normality occurs when kurtosis exceeds 7 and kurtosis of less than 7 does not pose problems for SEM procedures (Hoyle, 1995; Kline, 2011), we, therefore, conclude that the data of both samples met the criteria for normality. We included Welch t-test to obtain an overall perspective of the labor market situation and to examine if the mean difference of the study variables were statically significant in Sample 1 and Sample 2. Welch t-test was attested as a more efficient strategy for testing mean differences when sample sizes are unequal (Zimmerman, 2004). Results indicate that there were significant differences in the mean score of JI (t (1720.37) = 48.57, p < .01) and PE (t (1779.2) = 85.50, p < .01). Mean score for JI were lower in Sample 1 (M = 2.24, SD = 1.16) than in Sample 2 (M = 2.60, SD = 1.24). Mean scores for PE were higher in Sample 1 (M = 3.04, SD = 1.03) than in Sample 2 (M = 2.63, SD = 1.06). On the other hand, results indicate that there were no significant differences in the mean score of WB (t (1843.77) = 3.58, p < .06) nor LS (t (1687.40) = .00, p < .99).

The observed phenomena from the t-tests were consistent with labor market conditions, labor statistics such as job insecurity indexes (OECD, 2018a), and to a certain extent, existing studies. For example, as studies have suggested that JI reflects the country's unemployment and economic situation (De Weerdt et al., 2004), it is therefore, expected that sample 2 reports a higher level of JI. As PE measured in this study concerns one's possibilities in the current labor market, it is understandable for sample 2 to report lower PE due to higher youth unemployment and job scarcity. The observed difference in PE is also in line with the study by Berntson et al. (2006), which found PE to be higher when labor conditions are good. In fact, it is widely recognized that employability perceptions can

be affected by contextual factors such as national economic situation, labor supply and demand (Berglund & Wallinder, 2015; Berntson et al., 2006; McQuaid & Lindsay, 2005; Vanhercke et al., 2014).

Lastly, t-test indicated no difference in the scores of WB and LS despite differences in PE, JI, and unemployment rates– this finding is conspicuous. We speculate that it could be because of i) sample composition and social comparison and ii) 'negative' certainty and external attribution. Our sample comprises young job entrants who are in currently in employment during a period of employment drought. Hence, they might have a higher sense of financial independence, self-esteem, well-being, and more resources to focus on other life spheres, and hence a higher sense of life satisfaction (Modini et al., 2016). The sense of well-being and life satisfaction reported by participants could also be partially due to social comparison (Festinger, 1954) with unemployed counterparts of similar age, i.e., participants may consider themselves in a better condition than their unemployed counterparts, hence reporting higher WB and LS. As such, the levels of WB and LS does not appear to corroborate with the difference in PE and JI. The lack of a significant difference in WB and LS could also be because the poor employment outlook and job scarcity in 2011 give young Spaniards a 'negative' certainty about their job prospects, which supported individuals to cope better as it allows them to regain control over their life and future (Dekker & Schaufeli, 1995). For instance, Dekker and Schaufeli (1995) found WB to increase when insecure employees had clarity about their dismissal from the organization as compared to those who had no clarity. Also, the harsh labor market condition could promote an external attribution regarding the possibility of losing the job, hence protecting one's self-esteem, which in turn promotes WB and LS.

Having clarified that the observed phenomena, we proceed with the analyses. Table 7.3 presents the fit indices for Harman's one-factor test and CFA of the measurement model. Results for the one-factor test ruled out common method variance as a major concern and it also indicate that the single-factor model did not explain our data as well as the predicted three factors model, where variables were considered different constructs. We did not test

alternative two-factor measurement models, because i) we do not expect the three factors to measure similar constructs based on theory, and ii) the correlations (-.01 < *r* < -.27) indicate sufficient discriminant validity among the three factors (T. A. Brown, 2006). The three-factor model for both samples, however, presented a borderline acceptable fit as RMSEA were over .80 although CFI and TLI were over .90 and met the criteria. Nonetheless, with the addition of an error covariance between the third and last item of WB, the fit indices improved significantly ($\Delta\chi^2_{2008} = 495.23$, $p < .01$; $\Delta\chi^2_{2011} = 154.90$, $p < .01$). The fit indices for the modified sample 1 and sample 2 were: $\chi^2(31) = 138.28$, CFI = .98, TLI = .98, RMSEA = .05, SRMR = .05, and $\chi^2(31) = 72.60$, CFI = .99, TLI = .98, RMSEA = .04, SRMR = .04 respectively. With validity established, we proceeded with measurement invariance analysis.

The test of invariance included invariance of factor structure (Model 0; M0) factor loadings (M1), indicator intercepts (M2), residual variances (M3), structural covariance (M4) and structural means (M5). As reported in Table 7.4, the ΔCFIs tests indicated evidence for configural (equal factor structure) and weak invariance (equal factor loading). Partial strong invariance (equal indicator intercepts) was supported after freeing the equality constraint on the intercepts of the second PE item in M2a. Partial strict invariance (equal residual variances) was supported after freeing the constraint on the error variance of the first PE item in M3a. The final result (M5) demonstrated that the latent means and covariance are comparable between the two sample (RMSEA = .037, SRMR = .050, CFI = .971, TLI = .972, and ∆CFI < .01). That is, the questionnaire performed similarly in the two samples; group comparison reflects the true differences between the two samples.

Testing mediation models

We tested the mediation model through multi-group mediation SEM analyses. The fit indices for the direct effect model and mediation model were: $\chi^2(136) = 471.81$, RMSEA = .032, SRMR = .037, CFI = .984, TLI = .965, and $\chi^2(218) = 648.23$, RMSEA = .029, SRMR = .036, CFI = .984, TLI = .970 respectively. Table 7.5 presents the regression coefficients and

bootstrapped 95% confidence intervals for the direct effects (c), indirect effects, direct effects in the presence of mediator (c') and the effects of the predictor on the mediator variable and effects of the mediator on the outcome variable. Bootstrapped results indicated that JI mediated the relationship between PE and WB (β = .022, p < .01) and between PE and LS (β = .030, p < .01) in 2008 but not in 2011. Figure 7.2 presents the mediation model. We further examined the mediation by comparing the direct effects. Results indicated that JI partially mediated the relationship between PE and WB and between PE and LS in 2008. That is, in the presence of JI, the effect PE had on WB and LS were reduced.

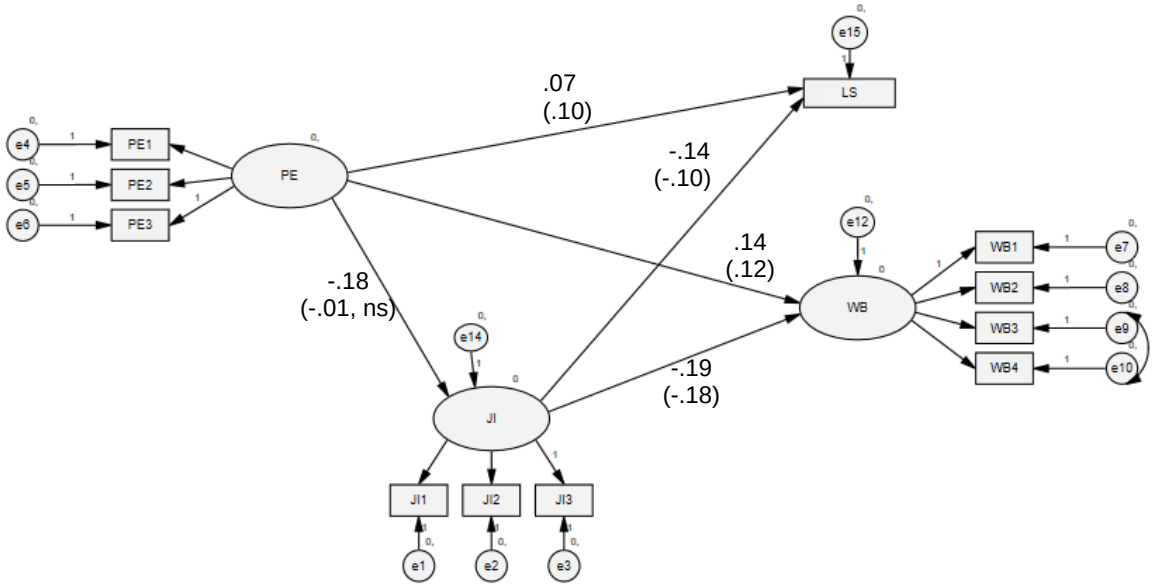

Figure 7.2. Standardized regression coefficients of the mediation model for Sample 1 (2008) and Sample 2 (2011; in brackets).

Table 7.2
Descriptive Statistics and Correlations among Study Variables (values below the diagonals are for Sample 1 (2008) and values the diagonals are for Sample 2 (2011; in grey)

		2008		2011											
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1	Gender						.20*	.09*	.09*	0.00	.07**	-.06*	0.02	0.01	-0.05
2	Education level					0.07		.19**	0.08	.44**	-0.04	0.02	-0.03	-0.03	-0.03
3	Habitat Size					0.06	.20**		.08**	0.03	-0.01	.07**	-.06*	0.01	-.08**
4	Employment type					0.07*	0.08	.08**		.22**	-.29**	.07**	0.03	.07**	.28**
5	Age	23.39	3.54	25.06	3.50	0.00	.44**	0.03	.22**		-0.02	0.02	-0.02	0.03	.33**
6	Job Insecurity	2.24	1.16	2.60	1.24	.07**	-0.04	-0.01	-.29**	-.06*		-0.04	-.18**	-.15**	-.12**
7	Perceived Employability	3.03	1.03	2.62	1.06	-.06*	0.02	.07**	.07**	-0.02	-.17**		0.05	.12**	0.06
8	Well Being	3.76	0.84	3.69	0.83	0.02	-0.03	-.06*	0.03	-.07**	-.21**	.08**		.30**	-0.03
9	Life Satisfaction	7.85	1.34	7.85	1.46	0.01	-0.03	0.01	.07**	-0.04	-.15**	.09**	.28**		0.05
10	Work Experience (Months)	22.42	22.24	23.92	18.07	-0.05	-0.03	-.08**	.28**	.37**	-.10**	0.00	-.06*	0.03	

Note: * p <.05; ** p < .01
[a] Cramer's V
[b] Spearman Rho

Table 7.3
Goodness of Fit for Harman One-Factor Test and CFA of the Three-Factor Measurement Model

	$\chi 2$	df	p	$\Delta\chi 2$	Δ df	RMSEA	SRMR	CFI	TLI
Sample 1- 2008									
Modified 3 factor Model[a]	147.21	31	.00			.050	.048	.982	.974
3 factor model	634.51	32	.00	487.30	1	.112	.075	.908	.840
1 factor model	3172.08	35	.00	2537.57	3	.244	.189	.520	.38
Sample 2- 2011									
Modified 3 factor Model[a]	71.02	31	.00			.038	.051	.989	.985
3 factor model	224.69	32	.00	153.67	1	.083	.051	.949	.928
1 factor model	1545.50	35	.00	1320.81	3	.222	.181	.597	.482

Note: The three factors are: Perceived employability, Well-being, and Job insecurity
[a] Error covariance added between Item Wellbeing3 and Wellbeing4

Table 7.4
Model Fit Indices for Measurement Invariance test (M0 – M5)

		$\chi 2$	df	p	RMSEA	SRMR	CFI	TLI	Δ df	ΔCFI	ΔRMSEA
M0	Equal Form	218.23	62	.00	.033	.048	.985	.978			
M1	Equal Factor Loading	231.52	69	.00	.031	.048	.984	.979	7	.001	.002
M2	Equal Indicator Intercepts	340.02	79	.00	.038	.048	.973	.969	10	.011	.007
M2a	Partial Equal Indicator Intercept (freeing Employability2)	340.02	78	.00	.038	.048	.975	.971	9	.009	.007
M3	Equal Error Variance	478.99	89	.00	.043	.049	.962	.962	11	.013	.005
M3a	Partial Equal Error Variance (freeing Employability1)	376.77	88	.00	.037	.048	.972	.971	10	.003	.001
M4	Equal Structural Covariance	392.91	94	.00	.037	.050	.973	.974	6	.001	.000
M5	Equal Structural Means	392.91	94	.00	.037	.050	.971	.972	0	.002	.000

Table 7.5
SEM Regression Coefficients for Multi-Group Mediation

	2008					2011				
	B	β	P	LCI*	UCI*	B	β	P	LCI*	UCI*
(a) PE → JI	-0.18	-.16	<.01	-.21	-.10	-.01	-.01	.84	-.09	.07
Outcome Variable = Well-Being										
(b) JI →WB	-.11	-.19	<.01	-.26	-.12	-.09	-.18	<.010	-.26	-0.09
(a x b) Indirect Effect	**.02**	**.03**	**<.01**	**.02**	**.05**	**.001**	**.001**	**.83**	**-.01**	**.02**
(c') Direct Effect**	.11	.14	<.01	.07	.21	.10	.12	.02	.02	.22
(c) Total Effect***	.13	.17	<.01	.10	.24	.09	.12	.02	.02	.23
Outcome Variable = Life Satisfaction										
(b) JI→LS	-.18	-.16	<.01	-.22	-.10	-.17	-.10	.03	-.22	-0.06
(a x b) Indirect Effect	**.03**	**.02**	**<.01**	**.01**	**.04**	**.002**	**.001**	**.80**	**-.01**	**.01**
(c') Direct Effect**	.10	.07	<.01	.01	.13	.16	.10	.01	.02	.19
(c) Total Effect***	.13	.10	<.01	.03	.15	.16	.10	.03	.02	.19

* Bias-Corrected Confidence Interval (95%)
** Direct effect' (c') refers to the regression of PE on outcome variable in the presence of the mediator
*** Total effect (c) refers to the regression of PE on outcome variable in the absence of the mediator

Testing moderation model

We tested the moderation models through multi-group moderation SEM analyses. The fit indices were: $\chi^2(594) = 1607.48$, RMSEA = .027, SRMR = .042, CFI = .979, TLI = .970. Figure 7.3 presents the moderation models with standardized regression coefficients. Results indicated interaction effect on WB (β = .13, p < .01) and LS (β = .07, p = .03) in 2011 but not in 2008. We plotted the interaction graph as shown in Figure 7.4 and 7.5 to better understand the interaction effect. The graphs indicated that WB and LS of individuals with higher PE were less affected in times of high JI than individuals with low PE. Overall, the graphs indicated that PE mitigates the negative relationship between JI and WB and between JI and LS. The results indicate that the moderation model could be more appropriate to apply in today's labor market context marked by high job insecurity and unpredictability.

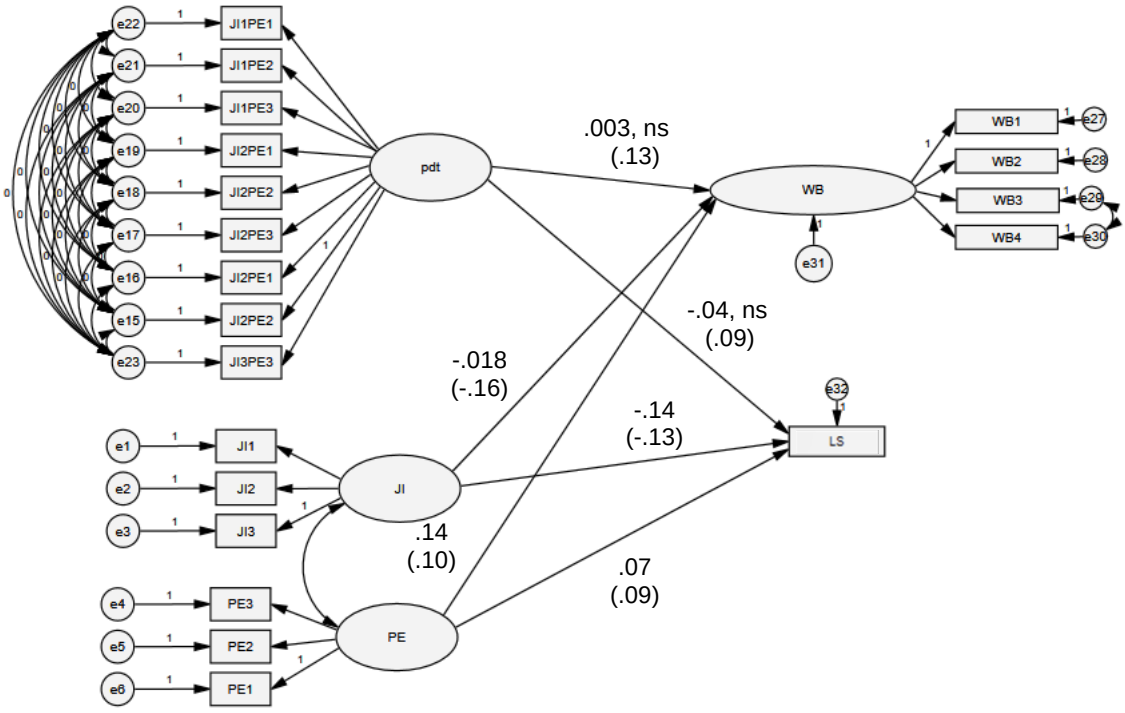

Figure 7.3. Standardized regression coefficients of the moderation model for Sample 1 (2008) and Sample 2 (2011; in brackets).

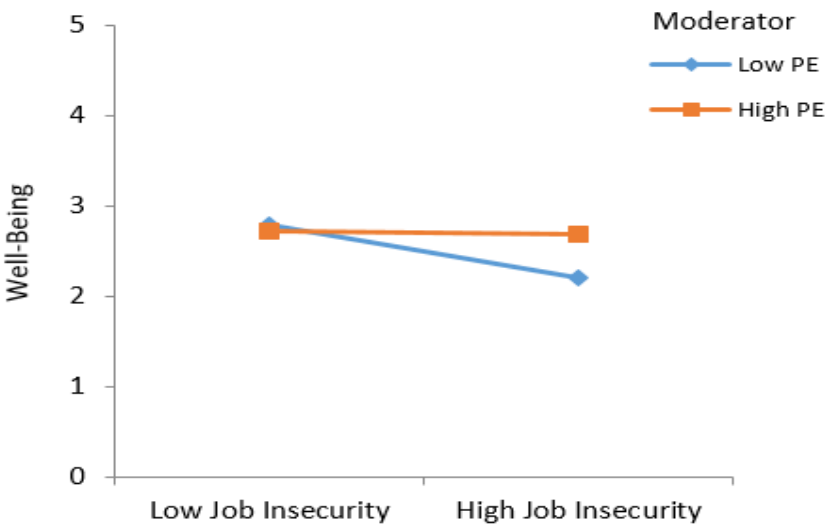

Figure 7.4. The interaction between Perceived Employability (PE) and Job Insecurity (JI) predicting Well-Being (WB)

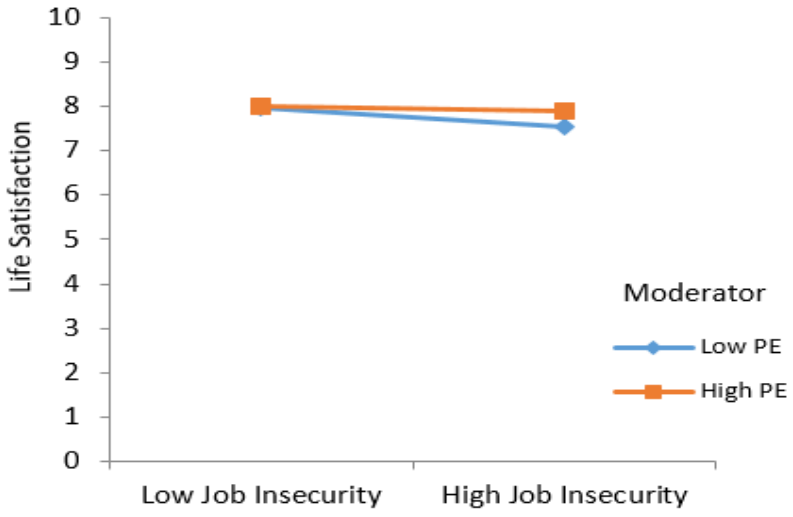

Figure 7.5. The interaction between Perceived Employability (PE) and Job Insecurity (JI) Life Satisfaction (LS)

Discussion

This study aims to address the discrepancies in the role of perceived employability (PE) and job insecurity (JI) when predicting well-being (WB) and life satisfaction (LS). The 2008 economic breakdown has a huge detrimental impact on the Spanish labor market, and it offered an opportunity to study the relevance of two competing models of PE and JI on WB and LS – mediation and moderation model. Using two cross-sectional samples: before (2008) and after (2011) the economic breakdown, we found clear and contrasting results. JI partially mediated the effect of PE on both WB and LS in 2008 but not in 2011. On the other hand, PE moderated the relationship between JI on both WB and LS only in 2011.

Mediation model

There is sizeable evidence about the mediated effect of perceived employability on well-being through job insecurity. The traditional explanation of such effect is that perceived employability reflect personal resources that directly influence the awareness about potential job loss. Our results showed that this mediated effect is present in 2008 but not in the 2011 sample. The main explanation for the non-significant mediation in the 2011 model is the lack of a significant relationship between PE and JI, which is in contradiction with existing literature (Berntson, Naswall, et al., 2010; Kalyal et al., 2010). We consider the extent of job destruction and job scarcity in Spain due to the economic crisis and postulate that young entrants may perceive the continuance of their job to be beyond the influence of their employability. That is, the positive appraisal of one's employability does not reduce the experience of JI because labor market conditions such as labor supply and demand exert a stronger influence. For example, Eurofound observed that employers were hesitant to offer young people permanent contracts during the economic crisis (European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions, 2013). In fact, studies have found that macro-level antecedents such as national unemployment rate, job availability, and economic conditions as important predictors of JI (Ashford et al., 1989; Hartley et al., 1991).

Consequently, it appears that young people consider that in such conditions, job insecurity does not rely strictly (or solely) on one's capacity and competencies. By testing the mediation model in two different labor conditions, our results extend existing evidence that macro-level antecedents can be more salient than individual characteristics during harsh conditions.

Moderation model

A number of studies showed evidence supporting the moderation effects, considering PE as a buffering variable between stressful job demands and well-being (i.e., anchored on the JD-R and COR theories). The moderation results in the current study were opposite from the mediation models; PE moderated the relationships between JI and WB, and JI and LS in 2011 but not in 2008. The results indicate that for individuals with a lower level of PE, there will be a decrease in WB and LS when JI is high as compared to those with a higher level of PE. Our results corroborate with previous studies which found that PE mitigates the negative effects of JI during organizational change where experienced JI is higher (Berntson et al., 2007; Berntson & Marklund, 2007; Kalyal et al., 2010). By testing the moderation model in two different labor conditions, our results extend existing evidence that PE could indeed be a valuable coping resource that can support individuals in maintaining WB and LS during harsh labor conditions or when JI is high.

Contributions and implications

The main theoretical implications of this study are clarifying which model is more appropriate for the different labor conditions, henceforth updating and deepening our knowledge in the field of PE and JI. The results have clearly shown that in high levels of economic uncertainty and turbulent labor market conditions, the moderation model is more appropriate in predicting WB and LS in young people, while the mediation model is more appropriate during normal conditions. Existing studies have established how PE and JI can be influenced by economic and/or labor conditions (Berglund & Wallinder, 2015; Berntson et

al., 2006; McQuaid & Lindsay, 2005; Vanhercke et al., 2014), and this current study further underscored the importance of being sensitive to these contextual factors when predicting and studying the impact of JI on young people.

The findings from this study call for producers of science in the field of JI and PE to be sensitive to the contextual factors from which their sample are drawn. This implies the need to devote attention to highlight the relevance of the models in different contexts and expound the economic and/or labor context of the sample population. An example is a recent study by) which explicitly emphasize i) the difference in sample population compared to existing research and ii) the difference in economic and labor context between the countries from which the De Cuyper et al. (2018) samples were drawn. On this note, we capitalize on the study by De Cuyper et al. and underscore that our sample is from Mediterranean Europe where the economic crisis is especially punishing due to the national debt and existing structural issues in the labor market. We recognize that due to nuances and combinations of labor market features, economic situations and even social policies, classifying countries is not an easy feat. Nevertheless, it is important to present at least some key features of the labor market. Consumers of science may not be aware of the contextual factors from which the sample is drawn and its impact on JI, PE and its outcomes. Hence, the responsibility to inform lies on the shoulder of the producers; producers can support consumers to be more sensitive to the labor market conditions when considering different interventions and their effects on career success and well-being. Together with the study by De Cuyper et al. (2018), it seems valuable to re-examine existing relationships related to PE and JI, especially those with inconsistent findings, through the lens of contextual factors and/or using data collected after the 2008 economic crisis.

The contrast in the results also highlights the importance of PE for young people in both labor conditions, although its positive effects come from different paths. Results indicate that while PE helps individuals to cope with JI during harsh labor conditions, individuals with higher PE perceive lower JI and therefore leads to better WB and LS during normal/ favorable labor conditions. Our study reinforces existing evidence that emphasizes the

importance of employability (McQuaid & Lindsay, 2005) regardless of labor conditions. Practical implications of our results suggest the merits of developing strategies to increase PE among young people, both in times of high and low levels of unemployment and/or labor market turbulence because PE appeared to be a valuable coping resource that buffers the detrimental effects of insecurity. We urge career practitioners, educators, and policymakers to explore enhancing employability through augmenting psychosocial resources (Harms & Brummel, 2013) in addition to education, on-the-job training and job-specific skills (Kluve, 2014; McQuaid & Lindsay, 2005). Based on the COR, gaining more psychosocial resources is an upward spiral which can plausibly support in reducing JI perception and also offer young people better support during adverse situations. Practical implications for organizations includes the possibility of including employability development for employees in human resource policies. Augmenting employees' employability perception can be a strategy to attenuate negative impacts of JI and to maintain employees' well-being (Berntson & Marklund, 2007; Briscoe et al., 2012; De Cuyper, Bernhard-Oettel, et al., 2008; Silla et al., 2009). For example, at a very elementary level, employability can be promoted by enhancing employees' awareness of their capabilities, strengths and competencies gained (e.g., through performance appraisals) and by communicating the organization's appreciation of employees' capabilities and competencies. Investing in employability as part of human resource policies can be worthwhile because it can also lead to a more committed workforce with the right knowledge, skills, and competencies to perform at the job (De Cuyper & De Witte, 2011).

Limitations and strengths

Several limitations should be taken into account when interpreting the results of the current study. First, the data involved two cross-sectional samples collected at two different time point. We recognize the advantages and strength of a longitudinal study for making causal inferences; however, as we are not interested in assessing changes in individuals over time comparisons using cross-sectional samples suffice. Furthermore, the two models

examined in this study have been studied in prior research, and existing longitudinal studies back the relationships in the models. For example, there are existing longitudinal studies that found negative effect of job insecurity on well-being (Hellgren & Sverke, 2003; Mauno & Kinnunen, 1999) and perceived employability on job insecurity (De Cuyper, Mäkikangas, Kinnunen, Mauno, & De Witte, 2012), and positive effect of perceived employability on well-being (Gowan, 2012; Vanhercke et al., 2015). On the contrary, we perceive the comparison of two cross-sectional samples to be a strength because it gives us a 'snapshots' of the impacts of labor conditions on young people of the *same age group* who are entering the labor market in *different labor market conditions,* i.e., same age group, different conditions through different historical time points (Coolican, 2014). Furthermore, we are confident that scores across the two samples can be compared and interpreted meaningfully because we have established the equivalence of the constructs in both samples through measurement invariance analysis (Milfont & Fischer, 2010). By establishing measurement invariance, we also minimize possible biases such as construct bias, method bias and item bias (Aegisdottir, Gerstein, & Cinarbas, 2008; Van de Vijver & Tanzer, 2004).

Second, although the labor context in Spain around 2011 akin to many other countries, reflecting an economic recession that affected employment possibilities, the Spanish situation is, however, more severe. For example, youth unemployment percentage in Spain as compared to the EU average was 6.2% higher in 2008, 17.8% higher in 2011 and 22% higher in 2017 (Eurostat, 2018b). In addition, the Spanish labor context differentiates itself from many other European countries with its extreme market duality, strict collective bargaining structure, and high market volatility (Aguirregabiria & Alonso-Borrego, 2014; Bentolila, Dolado, Franz, & Pissarides, 1994; Bentolila, Izquierdo, & Jimeno, 2010; OECD, 2013; Sala & Silva, 2009). Therefore, we urge readers to exercise caution and consider contextual factors when interpreting the results. Future research can consider replicating this study in countries with different labor context to that of Spain. Nevertheless, as this study examines competing relationships in *different labor conditions*, we believe our results are useful and beneficial in deepening our knowledge in this field especially when JI is expected

to increase in the future. Lastly, although it is impossible to estimate the reliability and validity of the single-item measure of life satisfaction, single-item measures can have high face validity (Dolbier, Webster, McCalister, Mallon, & Steinhardt, 2005), and suffice as an *overall indicator* of life satisfaction. Nonetheless, future studies can consider utilizing other life satisfaction measure such that used by Sora et al. (2011).

Conclusions

As literature showed evidence for both models the mediation and moderation models, our study contributes to clarifying which model prevails, and what variables could contribute to such discrepancies. We demonstrated that a different model was supported depending on the labor condition, which provided a rationale for the validity of both models. That is, when there is some degree of economic development and job availability (fat cows), employability is a personal resource that acts as an antecedent of well-being and life satisfaction, and their effect takes place through levels of job insecurity that are derived, at least in part, from these personal resources. On the other hand, in times of slow economic development, job scarcity and labor market volatility (skinny cows), employability should not be considered as an antecedent of insecurity and well-being, but as a coping resource for alleviating the effects of job insecurity. Keeping in view that labor market uncertainty, turbulence, and volatility would be commonplace in the future, the moderation model could be more appropriate for explaining the experiences of young job entrants. In addition, our results also provided evidence about the protective role of employability on well-being and life satisfaction. Although the role of employability may change depending on labor conditions, their relevance as a useful resource to cope with external demands is clearly maintained.

CHAPTER EIGHT (Study III)

JOB PRESERVATION EFFORTS:

WHEN JOB INSECURITY PROMPTS PERFORMANCE

Introduction

How do people react when the continuity and stability of their job are at risk? Does their performance succumb to the anticipation that they might lose their job, or do they devote extra effort towards their performance to prevent job loss from happening? Research on job insecurity defined as the experience of uncertainty about the continuance of one's present job (Vander Elst et al., 2014), has found evidence for both, with the majority supporting the former. While meta-analytical evidence shows that job insecurity is a significant stressor that results in poorer performance (e.g. Cheng & Chan, 2008; Gilboa, Shirom, Fried, & Cooper, 2008), a minority of the studies also show that job insecurity can create a motive to secure one's job and hence prompt performance (e.g. Probst, Stewart, Gruys, & Tierney, 2007). This suggests that the relationship between job insecurity and performance outcomes may depend on moderating variables. That is, while the experience of job insecurity may impede performance for most workers, it may prompt performance for others.

In this study, we combine stress and coping framework (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) with recent theorizing on job preservation motivation (Shoss, 2017) to advance our understanding of when job insecurity may prompt employees' performance. According to the job preservation perspective, job insecurity might motivate employees to act in ways that they believe might keep job loss from occurring. For example, employees may attempt to demonstrate their worth to their employer by devoting extra effort towards behaviors that will be noticed and valued, such as task performance and organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB) (Shoss, 2017; Shoss & Probst, 2012). In this study, we include these different facets of performance (i.e., task and contextual performance) to reflect employees' overall performance in response to job insecurity. We argue that increased performance is a form of active, problem-focused coping (Carver, Scheier, & Weintraub, 1989; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984), which will only take place when employees feel that they can influence the uncertain

situation through their performance. Thus, we aim to uncover when employees show a behavioral reaction to job insecurity in the form of enhanced performance.

From a coping perspective, changes in performance in response to job insecurity can be regarded as behavioural, problem-focused coping strategies, rather than as an outcome that is negatively affected by its strain (Jordan, Ashkanasy, & Hartel, 2002; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Selenko, Mäkikangas, Mauno, & Kinnunen, 2013). Inherent to this perspective, however, is the assumption that employees believe that their performance influences their chance of job continuance (Brockner, Grover, Reed, & Lee Dewitt, 1992; Lam, Ashford, & Lee, 2015). We propose that employees will only resort to such coping strategies when they believe that counteracting job loss through performance lies within their power. We examine two such situations, one with an individual focus (through employees' intrinsic motivation) and one with a contextual focus (through perceived justice). We thus take into account that employees' behavioral reactions to job insecurity are not only determined by individual factors but also depend on how organizations treat their employees (Sverke et al., 2002; H. Wang, Lu, & Siu, 2015).

Theoretical background and hypotheses

To uncover when employees respond to job insecurity by enhancing their overall performance, we draw on Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) stress and coping framework. In this framework, coping is defined as the cognitive and behavioral efforts to manage specific external and/or internal demands that are appraised as taxing or exceeding the resources of the person (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984, p. 141). Although these resources can take many forms (e.g., personal, environmental, and/or organizational), the common denominator is that the resources possessed by or available to a person determine whether a particular coping strategy can or will be implemented (Armstrong-Stassen, 1994). Put differently, depending on their resources, employees may engage in different coping strategies to manage the threat of job loss (Mantler, Matejicek, Matheson, & Anisman, 2005).

In general, coping strategies can be divided into problem-focused strategies and emotion-focused strategies. Problem-focused coping strategies are directed at altering or changing the stressor, whereas emotion-focused coping strategies are directed at regulating or managing one's emotional reactions to the stressor. In addition, Latack (1986) introduced control-oriented coping, which is a more specific form of problem-focused coping and consists of actions that are proactive and take-charge in tone. Especially such active, problem-focused coping strategies, aimed at changing the situation, can buffer the negative effects of job insecurity on indicators of well-being (T. Cheng, Mauno, & Lee, 2014). In contrast, emotion-focused avoidance coping strategies can enhance the stress that stems from employment uncertainty (Mantler et al., 2005).

While active, problem-focused coping seems to be beneficial in times of job insecurity, people are not necessarily inclined to resort to this type of coping. In fact, research into coping behaviors suggests that employees under stress are most likely to adopt passive coping behaviors, regardless of problem-focused or emotion-focused (Catalano, Rook, & Dooley, 1986). This suggests that natural reaction to job insecurity is defensive, which is supported by the majority of research showing that job insecurity reduces employees' effort, performance, and satisfaction (G. H. L. Cheng & Chan, 2008; L. Jiang & Lavaysse, 2018; Sverke et al., 2002; Vander Elst et al., 2014)

Yet, some studies although a minority, show that the perception of job insecurity can also elicit enhanced performance. For example, job-insecure employees have been found to put more effort into their work than less job-insecure employees (Brockner et al., 1992; Galup, Saunders, Nelson, & Cerveny, 1997), and there is evidence that especially moderate to high levels of job insecurity can – under certain circumstances – lead to enhanced efforts at work in the form of task performance (Probst et al., 2007) and OCB (Lam et al., 2015).

Past research has sought to explain why employees sometimes respond to job insecurity by increasing rather than decreasing their performance. At the core of these explanations lies the assumption that job-insecure employees may be motivated to work harder because they want and need to secure their positions (i.e. job preservation motivation;

Shoss, 2017). That is, highly insecure employees may engage in high task performance and OCB as a proactive step to create a positive impression and to obligate their organizations to provide job continuance (Huang et al., 2013; Lam et al., 2015). Given the crucial role of supervisors' evaluations of overall performance for personnel decisions (Borman, 1991), these employees may believe that their chance on actual job loss might be reduced if they demonstrate these performance behaviors. Yet, it remains unclear when employees resort to such active, problem-focused coping strategies.

Here, we examine two conditions under which job-insecure employees may resort to active, problem-focused coping strategies in the form of task and contextual performance: employees' intrinsic motivation and their perceived organizational justice. Our key reasoning is that employees are more likely to engage in active, problem-focused coping strategies in situations in which they perceive that something can be done to change the threatening situation (Carver et al., 1989; Folkman & Lazarus, 1980). For example, people show more active coping in situations they appraise as providing some degree of control and show less control-oriented coping when they perceive a sense of powerlessness to influence the outcomes (Armstrong-Stassen, 1994; Mirowsky & Ross, 1986). Specifically, we predict that the perceived threat of job insecurity will result in active coping in the form of overall performance when employees believe that enhancing their performance may be a feasible strategy for resolving the stressful situation. Such beliefs, we propose, will emerge when they are not previously intrinsically motivated to perform to the best of their abilities, and when they have good reason to expect that their performance will be rewarded with job continuance.

Intrinsic motivation

One of the conditions that may prompt performance in response to job insecurity is the extent to which an employee wants to perform well in his/her job, i.e. their intrinsic motivation (Warr, Cook, & Wall, 1979). This assumption builds on the literature on performance, in which a distinction can be made between typical and maximum performance. In a typical

performance situation, employees are not aware that their performance is being evaluated, are not consciously attempting to perform to the best of their ability, and are loosely monitored over an extended period. In a maximum performance situation, however, employees are aware that their performance is being evaluated, accept implicit or explicit instructions to maximize their effort, and are evaluated for a relatively short time. In such situations, employees usually show higher effort and higher contextual performance compared to their typical, day-to-day, performance (Sackett, Zedeck, & Fogli, 1988).

Yet, research on self-determination theory (Ryan & Deci, 2000) suggests that employees with sufficient intrinsic motivation may work as hard under typical performance conditions as they do under maximum performance conditions, while employees with low intrinsic motivation may work harder under maximum performance conditions than under typical performance conditions (Klehe & Anderson, 2007). Put differently, employees with high intrinsic motivation are inclined to perform to the best of their abilities regardless of the external situation, while those with low intrinsic motivation may be able to elevate their performance in situations that require enhanced effort and performance. We propose that job insecurity represents a situation similar to a maximum performance situation, in the sense that employees may feel that their overall performance is being evaluated for personnel decisions. Engaging in higher task performance and OCB is, then, a strategic way for employees to bolster their reputation as a “good actor” (Bolino, 1999), driven by instrumental motives to keep their job (Lam et al., 2015; Schreurs, van Emmerik, Günter, & Germeys, 2012).

In addition, low intrinsically motivated employees have the discretion to enhance their overall performance. Because they are not performing to the best of their abilities in a typical, day-to-day situation, they likely feel that enhancing performance is possible and that doing so may increase their chance of job continuance. Thus, they may consider the insecure job situation as more or less controllable and may resort to active coping in the form of task performance and OCB in an attempt to keep their job. More specifically, low intrinsically motivated employees may understand that they are in a more precarious position than those

who are typically performing to the best of their abilities, which should result in both the willingness and ability to improve performance in an attempt to keep their job (also see Lam et al., 2015). Thus, we propose that low intrinsically motivated employees will respond to job insecurity through higher performance.

> *Hypothesis 1.* The relationship between employee perceived job insecurity and supervisor-rated overall performance is moderated by employee intrinsic motivation, in such a way that perceived job insecurity is only positively related to performance when intrinsic motivation is low.

Obviously, also employees who are intrinsically motivated to perform well wish to preserve their job, as they experience interest and need fulfillment from their job (Ryan & Deci, 2000). One could, therefore, argue that high intrinsically motivated employees – rather than low intrinsically motivated employees – will engage in active coping strategies in the form of enhanced performance. However, we expect that high intrinsically motivated employees will not respond to job insecurity through active coping in the form of performance, because they may not believe to that there is anything extra that they can do to enhance their performance (Brockner et al., 1992). Given that such employees are already intrinsically motivated to perform to the best of their abilities in a typical, day-to-day situation, they are unlikely to feel that further enhancing their performance is possible or worthwhile.

Perceived distributive justice

Another possible condition that may prompt performance in response to job insecurity is employees' perceived distributive justice within the organization. Distributive justice is – next to procedural and interactional justice – one of the components of organizational justice that refers to the extent to which employees are treated fairly by the organization (Colquitt et al., 2013). Employees form distributive justice perceptions by comparing the ratio between their efforts (time, energy, training) and the rewards they receive (pay, support, security) to the ratios of others. In this study, we focus specifically on distributive justice as it reflects how

performance is generally rewarded within an organization, which provides an important guide for employees to direct their behaviors needed to deal with job insecure situations (cf. Wang et al., 2015). In addition, when people make overall fairness judgments, perceptions of distributive justice tend to be more salient and influential than other forms of justice (Colquitt, 2001).

High distributive justice may prompt overall performance in response to job insecurity. When performance is generally fairly rewarded with valued outcomes within an organization, employees are more likely to believe that enhancing their efforts and contributions to the organization may also result in a higher chance of job continuance. Put differently, a work environment in which employees experience high distributive justice may support their belief that putting more effort in their job can result in more security. Distributive justice may thus foster employees' perceptions of controllability of their continued employment (Colquitt et al., 2006). We expect that employees who perceive high distributive justice will exert extra effort and engage in more OCB in response to job insecurity, in the hope that they will obligate their –fair– organization to provide job continuance. In contrast, employees who perceive low distributive justice may feel that their job continuity is less predictable and controllable (De Witte, 1999). In such an unfair work environment, they may be worried that increasing their performance is fruitless because the organization tends to be unfair when it comes to rewarding efforts (H. Wang et al., 2015). Employees who perceive low distributive justice are therefore unlikely to resort to active coping in the form of high overall performance.

> *Hypothesis 2.* The relationship between employee perceived job insecurity and supervisor-rated overall performance is moderated by employee perceived distributive justice, in such a way that perceived job insecurity is only positively related to performance when perceived distributed justice is high.

Methods

Participants and procedure

A sample of 125 employees from a technical maintenance department of a Dutch public transportation company was invited to fill out a paper-and-pencil questionnaire about their job experiences. At the time of the study, the company was in the initial phase of a reorganization process to meet severe government cuts, which were publicly announced a few months earlier. Because of these cuts, the work package of the department was to be greatly reduced. Participants (N = 103, response rate 82.4%) were aged between 22 to 64 years (M = 46.23, SD = 12.19) and a majority of them were male (98.1%). Most participants (61.2 %) were electrical engineer, 30.1% of the participants was mechanical engineer, and 8.7% had administrative or managerial jobs. Participants had a high school or vocational education (89.3%) or a bachelor or master degree (10.7%). The supervisors of five teams were asked to rate the overall performance of the employees in their own team. Supervisors rated a minimum of 12 and a maximum of 29 employees.

Measures

Unless indicated otherwise, employees were asked to indicate their level of agreement with all items on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from (1) s*trongly disagree* to (5) *strongly agree*. Supervisors assessed only their employees' overall performance.

Job insecurity. We measured job insecurity using three items reflecting the quantitative dimension of job insecurity (perceived threats to the continuity of the job itself) derived from Hellgren, Sverke, & Isaksson (1999). An example item is: *"There is a risk* that I will have to leave my present job in the year to come."

Intrinsic motivation. We measured intrinsic motivation using six items (Warr et al., 1979), such as "I like to look back on the day's work with a sense of a job well done". One

item in which a word was missing ("I feel a sense of personal satisfaction when I do this *job"*; missing word: well) was removed.

Perceived distributive justice. We measured perceived distributive justice using three items (Colquitt, 2001). An example item is: *"The reward I receive from my company* reflects the effort I put into my work."

Supervisor-rated overall performance. Supervisors were asked to rate the overall performance of each employee with three items on a 10-point scale ranging from (1) *extremely poor* to (10) *outstanding*. This scale includes task and contextual performance (OCB) items. The supervisors rated: (1) the task performance of the employee, (2) an employee's willingness to support peers (OCB-I), and (3) the effort an employee puts into the organization (OCB-O).

Employee self-rated contextual performance. Although supervisors are generally able to provide accurate and complete pictures of an employee's task and contextual performance (Williams & Anderson, 1991), not all employee work behaviors may be within the purview of the supervisor. Furthermore, employees may have a different view on their work behaviors than their supervisor. We, therefore, explored whether the relationships with supervisor-rated overall performance would be comparable to those with employee self-rated contextual performance[4]. Specifically, we measured employees' OCB-I (e.g. *"I am* willing to offer my time to help others who have work-related problems") and their OCB-O, (e.g. "I defend the organization when other employees criticize it") each with eight items (Lee & Allen, 2002), ranging from (1) *never* to (5) *always.*

[4] Employees were not asked to rate their task performance as to not compromise their trust in the confidentiality of their responses

Control variables: Demographics, perceived organizational support and job satisfaction. We included three demographic covariates (age, education, and tenure) because they have been found to affect employee performance assessments (Ng & Feldman, 2009, 2010). In addition to demographics, we also included organizational support and job satisfaction as covariates because they have been found to relate to task and contextual performance (Alessandri, Borgogni, & Latham, 2017; Williams & Anderson, 1991). More specifically, based on reciprocity, job performance tends to increase when employees perceive high organizational support (Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch, & Rhoades, 2001). Perceived organizational support was assessed with seven items, such as *"The* organization really cares about my well-being" (Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli, & Lynch, 1997). Additionally, positive attitudes –in particular job satisfaction– are key influencers of job performance (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2005; Judge, Thoresen, Bono, & Patton, 2001). Job satisfaction was assessed with four items from Judge et al. (2001), such as *"Most days I am* enthusiastic about my work".

Results

Preliminary analyses

Table 8.1 presents the means, standard deviations, internal consistencies, and correlations between all variables in this study.

Construct validity. To examine whether our scales represented separate constructs, we conducted confirmatory factor analyses (CFAs) involving different combinations of the five employee measures (job insecurity, intrinsic motivation, distributive justice, organizational support, and job satisfaction). The hypothesized five-factor model provided a reasonable fit ($\chi^2_{(179)}$ = 265.68, CFI = .914, TLI = .900, RMSEA = .069) and explained the data better than alternative measurement models (e.g., one-factor model, $\chi^2_{(189)}$ = 822.97, CFI = .363, TLI = .221, RMSEA = .181; three-factor model with intrinsic motivation and job satisfaction together, and justice and organizational support together, $\chi^2_{(186)}$ = 506.44, CFI = .678, TLI = .600, RMSEA = .130).

Multilevel data structure. Because employees can be considered as nested within work units and supervisors may systematically differ in their performance ratings, the data collected within work units were not independent of each other. Non-interdependence among observational data violates a basic assumption of traditional linear model analyses and results in α-error inflation (Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002). By means of multilevel analyses, it is possible to control for the dependence of data stemming from the same units and to keep the α-error level constant. We therefore first assessed if there was between workgroup variance within our data, which warrants multilevel regression analyses rather than ordinary linear regression analyses. Prior to analyses, all the predictor variables were centered at the group mean (see Kreft, de Leeuw, & Aiken, 1995). An intercept-only model in a mixed model analysis showed that the ICC was .15, indicating differences in supervisor-rated overall performance between work units. Hence, we used multilevel regression analyses to test our hypotheses.

Hypotheses testing

First, we estimated a model with fixed intercepts that explored the association between the demographic variables and performance and compared this model with the intercept-only model. The -2 log-likelihood of the overall model fit did not improve (-2 loglikelihood: $\Delta \chi 2 =$ 1,442, *df* = 3, *ns*), showing that the demographic control variables did not relate to performance. Therefore, and to save power, we removed the demographic control variables from the further analyses.

To test Hypothesis 1, in which we proposed that intrinsic motivation would moderate the relationship between job insecurity and overall performance, we estimated three fixed intercept models with supervisor-rated performance as the dependent variable (see Table 8.2): Model 1 included job insecurity, intrinsic motivation, and the interaction of job insecurity and intrinsic motivation as independent variables; Model 2 extended Model 1 by adding the control variables perceived organizational support and job satisfaction; Model 3 additionally included perceived distributive justice. Results showed that the interaction of job insecurity

and intrinsic motivation was significantly related to performance (Table 8.2; Figure 8.1). Specifically, slope analyses revealed that the slope for low intrinsically motivated employees was positively related to performance, but only when the modeled endpoint was -2SD (t = 2.045, p =.04). The slope for high intrinsically motivated employees was unrelated – or marginally negatively related – to performance (t = -1.809, p = .07 at +2SD). These results support Hypothesis 1. Note that after controlling for perceived organizational support and job satisfaction in Model 2, and for distributive justice in Model 3, the interaction term was no longer significant.

Hypothesis 2, in which we proposed that perceived distributive justice would moderate the relationship between job insecurity and performance, was tested in a similar way as Hypothesis 1. Results showed that the interaction between job insecurity and perceived distributive justice was significantly related to performance (Table 8.3; Figure 8.2). Specifically, the slope for employees with low distributive justice perceptions was positively related to performance, but only when the modeled endpoint was -1.5SD (t = 2.379, p = .02), whereas the slope for employees with high distributive justice perceptions was negatively related to performance (t = -2.0142, p = .05 at +1.5SD). These findings contradict Hypothesis 2: job insecurity was associated with higher performance for employees who perceive *low* distributive justice, and with lower performance for employees who perceive high distributive justice. The findings remained stable when perceived organizational support and job satisfaction (Model 2) and intrinsic motivation (Model 3) were entered into the regression: the slope for low distributive justice was positively related to performance when the modelled endpoint was -1SD (t = 2.368, p = .02 and t = 1.997, p = .05, respectively), while the slope for high distributive justice was marginally negatively related or unrelated to performance (t = -1.982, p = .051 and t = -1.867, p = .07 at 1SD, respectively).

Table 8.1
Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations and Internal Consistencies (on the diagonal) of the Study Variables.

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Age	46.23	12.19	-										
2. Tenure	19.43	12.96	.85**	-									
3. Education[1]	1.11	.31	-.14	-.23*	-								
4. Job insecurity	3.32	.97	.02	-.01	-.08	(.88)							
5. Intrinsic motivation	3.85	.59	-.11	-.15	.09	.17	(.70)						
6. Distributive justice	3.34	.91	-.06	-.01	-.19	.05	.10	(.95)					
7. Organizational support	3.53	.63	-.08	-.09	.00	-.05	.05	.44**	(.83)				
8. Job satisfaction	4.01	.55	.08	.15	-.08	-.09	.09	.19	.19	(.70)			
9. OCB-I	3.49	.73	.02	.09	-.01	.26**	.29**	.11	.16	.42**	(.84)		
10. OCB-O	3.36	.65	-.07	-.02	.19	.12	.40**	.02	.15	.29**	.50**	(.81)	
11. Performance[2]	6.43	1.15	-.04	-.03	.06	.02	.21*	.36**	.27**	.30**	.44**	.44**	(.85)

Note. [1] Lower = 1, Higher = 2, [2] Rated by the supervisor; * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$; N = 103.

Table 8.2
HLM Regression of Supervisor-rated Performance on Job Insecurity, Intrinsic Motivation, and Control Variables

Variable	Model 1 *Coefficient*	*S.E.*	Model 2 *Coefficient*	*S.E.*	Model 3 *Coefficient*	*S.E.*
Intercept γ_{00}	6.438**	.223	6.426**	.222	6.415**	.222
Job insecurity (JI) γ_{10}	.030	.106	.067	.101	.054	.099
Intrinsic Motivation (IM) γ_{20}	.381*	.177	.293†	.169	.273	.166
JI x IM γ_{30}	-.390**	.180	-.276	.174	-.168	.177
Organizational support γ_{40}			.323*	.155	.172	.168
Job satisfaction γ_{50}			.437*	.183	.417*	.180
Intrinsic Motivation γ_{60}					.258*	.123
-2 log-likelihood	310.563		290.690		286.365	

**p < .01, *p < .05, † p = .087; N = 103.

Table 8.3
HLM Regression of Supervisor-rated Performance on Job Insecurity, Distributive Justice, and Control Variables

Variable	Model 1 *Coefficient*	*S.E.*	Model 2 *Coefficient*	*S.E.*	Model 3 *Coefficient*	*S.E.*
Intercept γ_{00}	6.406**	.221	6.406**	.221	6.405**	.221
Job insecurity (JI) γ_{10}	-.005	.101	.027	.097	.014	.097
Distributive justice (DJ) γ_{20}	.343**	.109	.240*	.117	.238*	.116
JI x DJ γ_{30}	-.273**	.100	-.280**	.095	-.255*	.098
Organizational support γ_{40}			.163	.164	.158	.163
Job satisfaction γ_{50}			.498**	.172	.471**	.173
Intrinsic Motivation γ_{60}					.171	.166
-2 log-likelihood	291.286		281.745		280.694	

**p < .01, *p < .05, † p = .087; N = 103.

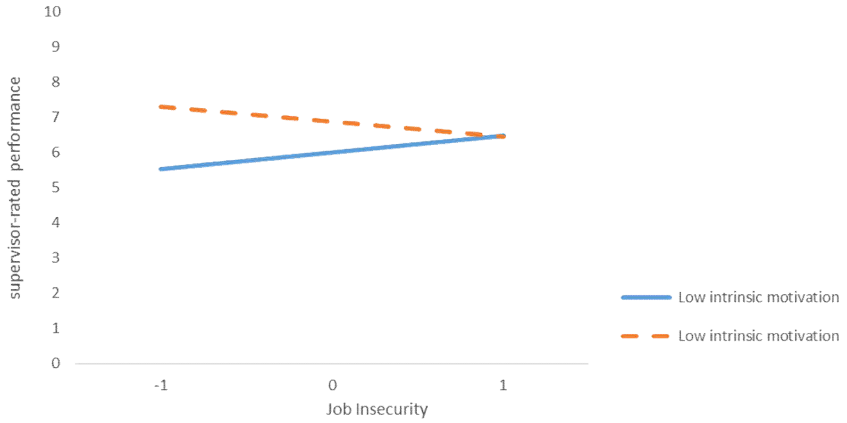

Figure 8.1. Moderating effect of intrinsic motivation on the relationship between job insecurity and supervisor-rated overall performance

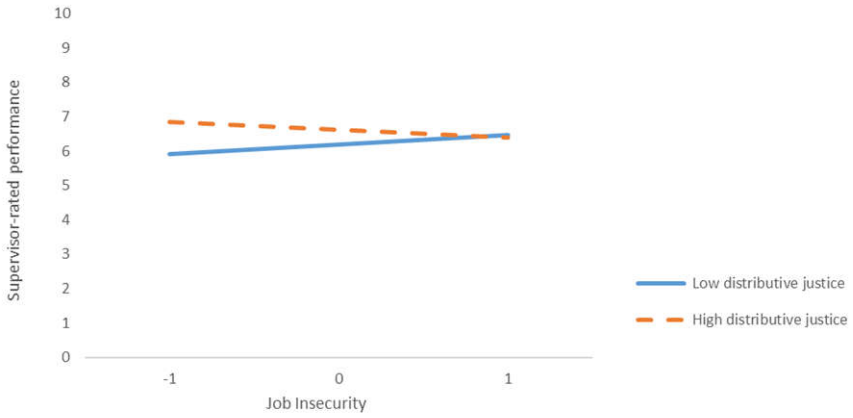

Figure 8.2. Moderating effect of distributive justice on the relationship between job insecurity and supervisor-rated overall performance.

Additional analyses

Employee-rated contextual performance. We explored whether the relationships with supervisor-rated overall performance would be comparable to those with employee self-rated contextual performance. We estimated the same three fixed intercept models, now with employee-rated OCB-I and OCB-O as dependent variables. The results were largely similar to the results of the analyses with supervisor-rated overall performance: intrinsic motivation showed no moderating effect on the relationships between job insecurity and both OCB-I and OCB-O, while distributive justice consistently moderated these relationships with only one exception (Table 8.4). The direction of the significant interaction effects between job

insecurity and distributive justice was also similar to that in the main analyses: relationships between job insecurity and OCB-I and OCB-O, respectively, were positive for employees with low distributive justice perceptions (e.g., Model 2: OCB-I: t = 4.697, p = .00; OCB-O: t = 2.8169, p = .01 at -1 SD), while not significant for employees with high distributive justice perceptions (e.g., Model 2: OCB-I : t = -0.396, p = .69; OCB-O: t = -0.4523, p = .65 at +1 SD). Altogether, job insecurity is associated with higher performance outcomes –both supervisor-rated and employee-rated– for employees with low distributive justice perceptions.

Discussion

In the beginning of this paper, we questioned whether employees would perform better or worse when the continuity and stability of their job are at risk. Our findings suggest that employees show higher overall performance in response to job insecurity when they are not previously intrinsically motivated to perform to the best of their abilities and – surprisingly – when they feel that they cannot rely on their organization to reward their performance fairly. The latter results were replicated when using employees' self-reports of contextual performance instead of their supervisors' ratings. Taken together, the results do not clearly support our assumption that the motivating effect of job insecurity on performance occurs when such performance is instrumental towards securing one's job. Yet, our findings can inform future research on the potentially motivating effect of job insecurity. Below, we will discuss how our findings give rise to the alternative hypothesis that employees may choose to exert extra efforts to secure their job when they feel that the potential for job loss is greatest.

Theoretical implications and future directions

Integrating our results with the typology of threat foci (Shoss, 2017), one may argue that job insecurity will elicit job preservation efforts among employees who experience both

Table 8.4
HLM Regression of Employee-rated Contextual Performance on Job Insecurity and Moderators (Model 2)

	Intrinsic motivation				Distributive Justice			
	OCB-I		OCB-O		OCB-I		OCB-O	
Variable	*Coefficient*	*S.E.*	*Coefficient*	*S.E.*	*Coefficient*	*S.E.*	*Coefficient*	*S.E.*
Intercept γ_{00}	3.492**	0.073	3.366**	0.067	3.488**	0.075	3.363**	0.060
Job insecurity (JI) γ_{10}	0.198**	0.064	0.069	0.060	0.196**	0.064	0.085	0.063
Moderator (IM or DJ) γ_{20}	0.280**	0.107	0.370**	0.101	-0.101	0.077	-0.102	0.076
JI x moderator γ_{30}	-0.090[1]	0.109	-0.034[2]	0.103	-0.180**[3]	0.062	-0.142*[4]	0.061
Organizational support γ_{40}	0.078	0.098	0.075	0.093	0.132	0.108	0.137	0.106
Job satisfaction γ_{50}	0.486**	0.116	0.291**	0.109	0.566**	0.113	0.375**	0.112
-2 log-likelihood	189.794		177.516		188.536		184.267	

**p < .01. *p < .05; N = 103.

[1] Interaction coefficient in Model 1: -.186; in Model 3: -.131.
[2] Interaction coefficient in Model 1: -.091; in Model 3: -.076.
[3] Interaction coefficient in Model 1: -.172**; in Model 3: -.148**.
[4] Interaction coefficient in Model 1: -.138*; in Model 3: -.131.

job-at-risk threat –the person-independent perception that the job itself is threatened– and *person-at-risk threat* –the person-dependent perception that one's position as jobholder is threatened. Job-at-risk-threat refers to job insecurity where the job itself is insecure, occurring, for example, as a result of macro-economic downturns, layoffs, and reorganizations. Person-at-risk threats refer to job insecurity that is linked to the particular job holder, occurring, for example, when employees perform poorly or have a bad relationship with their supervisor. Our findings indicate that the combination of high job-at-risk threat (i.e., perceptions of job insecurity resulting from reorganization) may elicit job preservation efforts in the form of performance. Findings from Lam et al. (2015) point in the same direction: they showed that positive effects of job insecurity on OCB were especially pronounced among employees who experience a greater loss of control because of low psychological capital and low *guanxi* –or in other words, those with both high job-at-risk threat (high job insecurity) and with high person-at-risk threat (low psychological capital and low guanxi). This suggests that job insecurity may only prompt performance when the potential for job loss is greatest (also see Brockner, 1988; Probst, 2002).

The notion of threat foci may also help to create consensus regarding the deviant 'positive' findings and dominant 'negative' findings in the job insecurity-performance relationship. That is, the experience of job-at-risk threat may simply be more prevalent than the experience of person-at-risk threat. Assuming that only employees who experience both job-at-risk threat and person-at-risk threat will resort to active coping in the form of enhanced performance, it can be argued that the majority of employees will resort to the more common passive coping behaviors because they only experience job-at-risk threat. Such passive coping behaviors involve strain reactions and withdrawal behaviors, thereby undermining performance (Piccoli, Reisel, & De Witte, 2019). Put differently, experiencing both high job-at-risk threat and high person-at-risk threat might be rare, which can explain why relatively few studies show that job insecurity prompts performance. This idea is further supported by the fact that we mainly found significant results at the endpoints of our scales – i.e., only in relatively extreme situations.

A focus on threat foci within job insecurity research can help to illuminate underlying mechanisms to uncover further when job insecurity prompts or impedes performance. It may be the case that employees experiencing high person-at-risk threat try to compensate for their negative expectations regarding job loss by enhancing their performance, while employees experiencing low person-at-risk threat feel optimistic about their chances to be retained, and, hence, feel uninclined to increase their performance. This assumption is based on the compensatory approach in the job search literature (van Hooft & Crossley, 2008), which predicts that people who perceive little control over outcomes (e.g., when distributive justice within their organization is generally low) are actually *more* likely to increase their efforts than those who anticipate high control over outcomes. We believe that empirically examining this compensatory approach is a promising route for future research to deepen our understanding of the positive and negative outcomes of job insecurity.

On a related note, it is very plausible that the effects of job insecurity on performance depend on time. That is, there is some evidence that coping is a process that changes over time (Kinicki & Latack, 1990). Specifically, in the initial phase of job insecurity, employees may rely on active, problem-focused coping in the form of enhanced performance. For example, when organizational downsizing has been announced, employees may engage in OCB to demonstrate their worth to the organization. Likewise, when tenure depends on meeting performance criteria, employees may work harder in order to meet those criteria. However, as the period of job insecurity lengthens, one's resources to engage in enhanced OCB and higher work efforts may begin to deteriorate, resulting in lower rather than higher performance. This notion is supported by the fact that we conducted our study at the beginning of a reorganization process, implying that we surveyed employees in an initial phase of job insecurity –and, hence, found that insecurity could prompt performance for some of them. We therefore strongly recommend that researchers adopt a temporal focus when examining job insecurity and its outcomes.

In future examination of the job insecurity-performance relationship, it may be worthwhile to examine different types of performance separately. In this study, we have only

touched upon possible differences in performance outcomes in our additional analyses, which did not show any meaningful differences. Yet, researchers have suggested that the relationship between job insecurity and performance might vary depending on the measurement of performance (Probst et al., 2007; Selenko et al., 2013). From a job preservation perspective, one may argue that job insecurity only increases the types of performance that are part of the official job description, because employees may believe that such behavior will be rewarded by decision-makers and may reduce threats (Shoss, 2018). Contextual performance, in contrast, may decrease in the face of job insecurity (i.e., OCB and voice); because employees may believe that these behaviors are not helpful or even hinder their chance of job continuance. Tentative support for this notion comes from Probst and colleagues (2002), who showed that the threat of layoffs increased productivity but decreased output quality and safety compliance. Thus, examining different types of performance outcomes separately in future research may contribute to creating more consensus regarding the job insecurity-performance relationship.

Practical implications

In light of prevailing job insecurity and organizational changes such as downsizing and restructuring, the results of this study can support organizations in understanding and monitoring employees' coping responses to job insecurity. That is, it is important to realize that in times of high job insecurity, enhanced task and contextual performance could be impression management by employees who were not as (intrinsically) motivated before (Bolino, 1999; Huang et al., 2013), or attempts from unfairly treated employees to take matters into their own hands. Although such compensatory behavior may seem positive at first sight, we have speculated that it may have a long-term negative impact through increasing stress and undermining employees' well-being (van Hooft & Crossley, 2008). Additionally, it is important to realize that enhanced performance does not necessarily indicate higher quality performance. For example, while the threat of layoffs can indeed prompt performance, it also impedes creative performance (Probst et al., 2007) and

increases safety violations (Probst, 2002). It is, therefore, of great importance that managers and organizations are aware of these job preservation efforts when making decisions about which employees should be retained.

At the same time, organizations should be careful with employees whose performance does not appear to increase in times of job insecurity. It is likely that these employees are intrinsically motivated, yet suffer from the maximum performance situation that high job insecurity represents (Klehe & Anderson, 2007). In fact, they may resort to more passive coping strategies that can undermine their performance and well-being. Such employees may thus require support to help them cope. One way to achieve this is via maintenance of a strong norm of fairness: organizational justice not only reduces the negative effects of job insecurity on attitudinal outcomes (Sverke et al., 2002; Wang et al., 2015) but can also prevent potential stressful compensatory responses in the form of job preservation efforts (the current study).

Limitations

The findings and implications discussed here need to be interpreted in the light of several limitations. First, despite the use of a supervisor-rated measure of overall performance –which minimizes the threat of common method bias (Podsakoff et al., 2003)–, our design remains correlational and involved self-report measures. Additionally, these measures were assessed at a one-time point, which warrants precaution about any time-lagged or causal inferences from the data. For example, we cannot conclude that employees' performance increased in response to job insecurity, only that their performance was higher when they felt more insecure about the continuance of their job. It may also be possible that supervisors rated employees' past performance, despite instructions to rate current performance. Generally, it seems better to specify the period of assessment (e.g., the past few days or weeks), but in our case, we aimed to specifically assess employees' performance in the context of a reorganization.

Second, our findings were based on a rather specific and small sample, which gives rise to several alternative explanations for our deviant positive findings and the lack of

dominant negative findings. For example, it may be that our sample experienced above average levels of job insecurity. That is, in studies where a null- or positive relationship between job insecurity and job performance was found, respondents reported moderate to high levels of job insecurity at around the mid-point of the scale, whereas in studies where a negative relationship was found, respondents reported levels below the midpoint (cf. Selenko et al., 2013). Indeed, within our sample, the average job insecurity was somewhat above the midpoint (M = 3.32). Alternatively, the relatively low level of education of participants may have influenced our results. That is, the work of lower educated employees is often more visible and measurable, making performance a preferred method to safeguard their job (Fischmann, De Witte, Sulea, & Iliescu, 2018). Additionally, lower educated workers are often more dependent upon their current job and have a more vulnerable position in the labor market (De Witte, Vander Elst, & De Cuyper, 2015), often lacking employability that higher educated workers do have. As such, they cannot afford to reduce their work efforts and are especially likely to start engaging in impression management strategies, which could result in better performance ratings by their supervisors. Finally, our sample may have been experiencing high job insecurity for a relatively short time, which resulted in directly visible active coping responses, while the negative consequences of job insecurity –such as decreased job satisfaction– had yet to appear. Again, this highlights the importance of adopting a temporal focus within job insecurity research.

Third, it is important to note that the interaction effect of intrinsic motivation disappeared after adding control variables to the analyses. This could be a result of insufficient power or because the control variables were relatively stronger predictors of performance. Alternatively, our measure of intrinsic motivation may not have fully aligned with our conceptualization. That is, we conceptualized intrinsic motivation as the extent to which an employee is driven by internal rewards to perform well in his/her job (Warr et al., 1979), while intrinsic motivation can also be conceptualized as doing something because it is inherently interesting or enjoyable (Ryan & Deci, 2000). The latter conceptualization – and operationalization – may have fitted better with our theoretical reasoning, and may perhaps

have resulted in more consistent findings regarding the moderating role of intrinsic motivation.

Conclusion

How do people react when the continuity and stability of their job are at risk? Our study suggests that employees devote extra effort towards performance behaviors that will be noticed and valued when they feel that the potential for job loss is greatest. Put differently, the motivating effect of job insecurity on performance only seems to emerge when both the job and the position as jobholder are threatened. In all other cases, job insecurity may impede performance. However, the sustainability of performance as an active, problem-focused coping strategy is questionable for both organizations and employees.

CHAPTER NINE

GENERAL DISCUSSION

The rapid pace of technology advancement, global economic instability, and pervasive organizational changes transformed the world of work into a highly dynamic, turbulent, and insecure environment, figuratively described as a 'whitewater' environment. To be successful in such an environment, individuals more than before, need to take proactive approaches to manage and develop their career, constantly up-skill and cope with pervasive changes and novel work demands. In addition to these, individuals need to cope with the inherent job insecurity present in the current whitewater world of work. In this whitewater context, career adaptability has become important for the contemporary workforce – i.e., being able to cope and adapt to the rapidly changing labor market demands. Despite the rising attention on the career adaptability as an element important for career success, scholars believe that employability will continue to be important as it provides individuals with competences to gain and maintain employment of preference. Given that both employability and career adaptability are related psychosocial constructs purported to be important to career success, it is plausible that the contemporary construct - career adaptability exerts more influence on career success than employability. However, most of the recent studies on career success have yet to examine the role of career adaptability and employability *together*. In addition, as economic instability has an impact on labor conditions which subsequently have an impact on job insecurity and employability, it is then imperative to clarify the role of employability in the current labor context in order to better support individuals to achieve career success. Such clarification is necessary as literature reports support for both the mediation and moderation model pertaining to employability, job insecurity, and career success. Besides being able to support individuals in maintaining and achieving career success in the contemporary world of work, it can be beneficial to support individuals in maintaining or enhancing performance when they experience an (additional) increase in job insecurity. Although the majority of the studies indicate that job insecurity is a hindrance stressor that impedes performance, the minority of studies which demonstrated otherwise suggest that the relationship between job insecurity and performance outcomes

may depend on moderating variables such as organizational justice, and it is worth investigating.

With this context as a backdrop, the general aim of this research is to support individuals in maintaining and achieving career success in the whitewater work environment. More specifically, the dissertation had the following three aims. The first was to study the relevance of employability to career success amidst the rising attention on career adaptability. This is achieved by investigating the relative importance and commonality of employability and career adaptability when predicting subjective career success indicators. The second aim was to clarify the role of employability and job insecurity on subjective career success in different labor conditions by testing the competing moderation and mediation models in two different labor conditions. The third aim was to uncover when do employees show a behavioral response to job insecurity in the form of enhanced overall job performance. Following this, the discussion is composed of one subsection for each of these three specific aims, followed by some suggested implications, and ending with methodological concerns and future research directions.

Relevance of Employability Amidst Rising Importance of Career Adaptability

Before the increased attention on career adaptability, employability has been in the foreground of career development and career success because it concerns one's ability to maintain or obtain a job and to cope with job insecurity (Berntson, Näswall, et al., 2010). As shown in literature, employability is believed be still relevant to career success as provides individuals with competences to gain and maintain employment of preference (De Cuyper et al., 2018), and research in this area is still in progress. Doubtless, recent studies in this field showed that employability still has its influence on subjective career success (De Cuyper et al., 2018; Kirves, De Cuyper, Kinnunen, & Nätti, 2011; Otterbach & Sousa-Poza, 2016), these studies, however, did not consider the influence of career adaptability nor control for it. For example, by way of following the trails of existing studies, Study 2 of this research

examined the role of employability on subjective career success, without considering the influence of career adaptability. Results from Study 2 generally indicated that employability is indeed still relevant to career success in the current whitewater environment because the paths from employability to the subjective career success indicators of well-being and life satisfaction were statistically significant in the year 2008 and 2011. From a different angle, should employability be no longer relevant to subjective well-being and life satisfaction, the paths would only be significant in the year 2008 (which corresponds to normal labor condition) and not in the year 2011 (which corresponds to harsh labor condition). However, because the effect of career adaptability is not included and controlled for, it is only possible to obtain an indication on the relevance of employability, but it is not possible to determine *how* relevant employability is.

On the assumption that both employability and career adaptability are related psychosocial constructs whose influence on career success do not happen remotely from each other, Study 1 of the present research examined the relative importance of employability and career adaptability when predicting subjective career success. One of the most notable results from Study 1 is that career adaptability predicted job satisfaction in the absence of employability but ***not*** in the presence of employability. The results also revealed that the main contributor to job satisfaction was employability, followed by the commonality shared between employability and career adaptability. In this scenario, the career adaptability resources that predicted job satisfaction appeared to be almost a subset of employability resource because its unique contribution only accounted for only .51% of the total variance explained in job satisfaction.

On the other hand, a somewhat different result was obtained when predicting perceived job performance. Career adaptability appeared to contribute to the prediction of job performance two times more than employability. However, the sum of the unique contribution by career adaptability and employability was only half of the contribution made by the commonality shared by career adaptability and employability. In this scenario, the majority of the career adaptability resources that predicted perceived job performance are pretty much

the same as the employability resources. This suggests that either of the concepts alone may suffice when predicting job performance, although career adaptability may be a slightly better predictor.

In sum, Study 1 addressed research question Q1 by demonstrating that employability is still a relevant concept in today's labor market despite the rising attention on career adaptability, and addressed research question Q2 by demonstrating that employability and career adaptability share a satisfactory amount of commonality when predicting subjective career success. Study 1 further demonstrated that employability might have a larger role because its predictive role is more dependable than career adaptability, i.e., it has a predictive role in two of the outcome, unlike career adaptability. It also suggests that the presence of employability could plausibly attenuate the role of career adaptability on subjective career success and vice versa.

Clarifying the Role of Employability and Job Insecurity In Differing Labor Conditions

Having ascertained in Study 1 that employability still has a role in the current whitewater environment, the next aim was to clarify its role in differing labor conditions. This motivation arises due to the discrepancy noticed in the literature, and the fact that job insecurity will continue to increase due to global economic instability and advancing technology. Given that macro factors such as global economic situations can affect the labor market which in turns impact the experience of job insecurity (Anderson & Pontusson, 2007; De Weerdt et al., 2004) and employability perceptions (Lübke and Erlinghagen, 2014), it is imperative to clarify its role in order to better support individuals in achieving career success in harsh labor conditions. The Spanish labor market situation offered an opportunity to examine the discrepancy because the global economic breakdown in the year 2008 has a huge detrimental impact on the Spanish labor market for many years following. Hence, using two cross-sectional samples drawn from the population in the year 2008 (normal labor

condition) and 2011 (harsh labor condition), the two competing models – mediation or moderation model (see figure 1.1a and figure 1.1b) were tested.

Results from Study 2 demonstrated that the data supported the mediation model as indicated by literature, but only in the year 2008. The common explanation for the mediating role of job insecurity rest mainly on the notion that perceived employability is an antecedent of job insecurity (De Cuyper, Baillien, et al., 2009; Forrier & Sels, 2003b). However, in harsh labor condition (2011), the mediation model was not statistically significant, and the main reason was the lack of a significant relationship between perceived employability and job insecurity. This phenomenon could be attributed to the extent of job destruction, job scarcity, and poor employment outlook brought about by the economic crisis and existing structural issues in the Spanish labor market. To put into perspective, the Spanish youth unemployment rate was 24.5% in 2008 and 46.2% in 2011 (Eurostat, 2018b), and obtaining a job in the year 2013 is almost six times harder than in 2008 (European Commission, 2014). As a result, individuals perceive the ability to obtain a new job or to maintain their current job to be beyond the influence of their employability. In other words, in times where the labor market is tight, the positive appraisal of one's employability does not influence the experience of job insecurity because labor market conditions such as labor supply and demand exert a stronger influence.

On the other hand, the data from Study 2 also supported the moderation model. However, unlike the mediation model, the moderation model was supported in only in the year 2011. In normal labor condition (2008), the moderation model was not statistically significant, and the main reason was that the interaction term was not significant. The moderation role of employability in only harsh labor condition (2011) could be understood through the attribution theory (Weiner, 1986). Because of the extent of job destruction, job scarcity and poor employment outlook in 2011, individuals may tend to make external attribution to explain for their situation, and the experience of job insecurity as obtaining or maintaining a job is beyond the influence of ones' ability. In such situation, the positive self-appraisal of one's resources – i.e., perceived employability can support individuals to

preserve their self-esteem and enhance the anticipation of a future identity upon market recovery (Green, 2011). In this respect, employability buffers the impact of job insecurity on subjective career success and functions like a protective mechanism in harsh labor condition.

In sum, Study 2 addressed research question Q3 by demonstrating that the mediation model is more relevant in predicting psychological well-being and life satisfaction in normal labor condition while the moderation model is more relevant in harsh labor condition. That is to say; the moderation model is more relevant in describing the role of employability and job insecurity in the current (Spanish) labor market context. In other word, during harsh condition, employability should not be considered as an antecedent of insecurity, but as a coping resource for alleviating the effects of job insecurity. Although it is a pity that career adaptability could not be included in Study 2, the results are nonetheless worthwhile and valid because of the following two reasons. One, Study 1 has demonstrated that employability is still relevant in predicting subjective career success in today's whitewater environment. Two, the predictive role of employability appeared to be dependable.

Understanding When Job Insecurity Prompts Job Performance

Besides being able to support individuals in maintaining and achieving career success in the contemporary world of work, it can be beneficial to support individuals in maintaining or enhancing performance when they find themselves in situations of intensifying job insecurity. Although the literature indicates that job insecurity is mainly a hindrance stressor that impedes performance (e.g., Cheng & Chan, 2008; Gilboa, Shirom, Fried, & Cooper, 2008), there are also a minority of studies that demonstrate the opposite. Though a minority, it showed that there are possibilities that job insecurity, under certain circumstances, can create a motive to secure one's job which leads to enhanced performance (e.g., Probst, Stewart, Gruys, & Tierney, 2007) and an increase in extra-role behavior (Fischer et al., 2005; Staufenbiel & König, 2010). Based on the job preservation motivation (Shoss, 2017), which suggest that job insecurity motivates individuals to act in ways they believe might reduce the

possibility of job loss, Study 3 sets out to examine when do employees show a behavioral response to job insecurity in the form enhanced overall job performance with intrinsic motivation and perceived distributive justice as moderators.

Results from Study 3 indicated that the interaction of intrinsic motivation and job insecurity, and the interaction of perceived distributive justice and job insecurity were significantly related to performance. Specifically, the slopes analyses demonstrated that job insecurity was positively related to performance for i) employees low on intrinsic motivation and ii) for employees who perceived distributive justice to be low in the organization. The results were replicated when supervisor-rated overall performance was replaced with employees' self-reports of contextual performance. In another word, the results indicated that employees demonstrate higher overall performance (supervisor-rated) in response to job insecurity when they are not previously intrinsically motivated to perform to the best of their abilities (i.e., low intrinsic motivation) and when they feel that they cannot rely on the organization to reward performance fairly (i.e., low perceived distributive justice). The latter contradicted the hypothesis in Study 3; results indicated that employees are more likely to resort to active coping when perceived distributive justice is low rather than high. This could be because fair dismissal decisions would likely take into account the past performance records and would be less likely to be influenced only by the current performance or 'impression management' tactics.

In sum, Study 3 addressed research question Q4 by demonstrating that employees may attempt to secure their job by increasing their performance when they realize that their ordinary performance or the lack of organizational fairness may put them at great risk of losing their job. Although the result reflected a positive relationship between job insecurity and job performance, Study 3 however, did not clearly indicate that job insecurity could prompt (i.e., motivate) performance when performance is instrumental in securing one's job. Instead, Study 3 seemed to have uncovered conditions that can plausibly facilitate impression management.

Implications

Study 1 and 2 have demonstrated that employability is still relevant to career success in today's whitewater world of work and can also support individuals to cope with job insecurity by buffering the negative impact of job insecurity on one's psychological well-being and life satisfaction specifically in harsh labor conditions. Hence, the development of one's employability remains important. Considering that career adaptability also has a role in predicting subjective career success and there exist commonality between career adaptability and psychosocial employability, this research highlights an opportunity for merging career adaptability and psychosocial employability into a single more parsimonious construct. This can be beneficial to both research and practice because the psychosocial employability lacks a unified measurement scale, and the 'merger' might be a possible solution as an established scale for career adaptability exist – the Career Adapt-Ability Scale. The proposal to merge and refine career adaptability and psychosocial employability into a single more parsimonious construct is aligned with the proposition by Lo Presti & Pluviano (2016) who exerted that a solid definition of employability is needed for the contemporary work context. Upon considering that individuals need to cope proactively with pervasive changes more than before, Lo Presti and Pluviano proposed employability to be operationalized with the following formula: Employability = Career Identity (or Self-Management) X Professional Development X Environment monitoring. This formula resonates with the proposal made by this present research. For instance, environment monitoring X self-management resonate with the conceptualization of career adaptability, especially with the concern and curiosity dimension. In addition, career identity X professional development resonates with the notion of employability.

On the practical end, the merge into a single more parsimonious construct could mean that career practices and training could be more cost and time effective because both career adaptability and employability resources can be enhanced simultaneously. While most employability programs tend to be based on developing human capital resources, career

adaptability tends to be based on developing psychological and career identity resources. In fact, Harms and Brummel (2013) also advocate building employability through augmenting psychosocial resources in addition to education, on-the-job training, and job-specific skills (Kluve, 2014; McQuaid & Lindsay, 2005). Hence, merging the two concepts can plausibly develop individuals more holistically, i.e., develop human capital resources, psychological and career identity resources. In short, the practical benefit of the merger is two-fold; individuals enhance their employability and career adaptability resources at the same time. This is advantageous for both individuals and organizations alike because organizations need competent employees to maintain the organization's competitive advantage and employees who can change and adapt quickly in a world of work characterized by constant and rapid changes.

The practical implication of this research also suggests the merits of developing one's employability in both high and low levels of labor market turbulence as employability contributes to one's career success, and in times of labor market harshness, it can buffer the detrimental effect of insecurity. Organizations can also consider retaining and supporting the development of employees' employability in their human resource policy in both normal and harsh labor conditions and economic conditions. This is because, in normal conditions, enhancing employees' employability can contribute indirectly to building the organization's productive capabilities (De Cuyper & De Witte, 2011), and during harsh condition such as during the economic crisis, it can support employees to cope with the intensifying experience of job insecurity (Berntson & Marklund, 2007; Briscoe et al., 2012; De Cuyper, Bernhard-Oettel, et al., 2008; Silla et al., 2009). In a sense, by developing employees' employability regardless of labor conditions, organizations can benefit from the different roles of employability when labor conditions or macro factor changes.

While practice can harness the benefits of employability in both labor conditions, research, on the other hand, needs to be more sensitive to the contextual factors in order i) to apply the appropriate model to the study and ii) to be precise and effective in the study outcome. On this note, it is highly recommended that studies in this field highlight the

economic and labor contexts from which the data is drawn such that consumers and even producers of science can make the correct inference and applications. This can be beneficial especially in situations where consumers of science are not (yet) aware of the changing roles of employability in different labor conditions. In addition, as labor conditions vary from country to country, being sensitive to contextual factors can also make a difference in research and interventions. For example, in Europe itself, labor conditions greatly vary across Spain and Germany. In such situations, considering employability as an antecedent of job insecurity and career success may be more appropriate (i.e., mediation model) in Germany, while considering employability as a moderator that buffers the impact of job insecurity may be more appropriate in Spain.

From the organization's perspective, besides continuing to support the development of employees' employability when labor market (both internal and external) tightens and experience of job insecurity increases, organizations can also take measures to ensure that a strong norm of organizational justice is communicated. Such communication may be able to reassure employees that the organization will remain fair in distributing rewards, hence giving employees more certainty in judging their possibility of retaining their current job, which in turn, prevent potential stressful compensatory responses in the form of job preservation efforts (the current research). In addition, studies have highlighted that organizational justice can reduce the negative effects of job insecurity on attitudinal outcomes (Sverke et al., 2002; Wang et al., 2015). Also, as demonstrated in Study 3 of the present research, the job preservation efforts i.e., enhanced task and contextual performance, could be impression management by employees who were not as (intrinsically) motivated before (Bolino, 1999; Huang et al., 2013) and that low distributive justice perception can facilitate impression management strategies. Although such compensatory behavior may seem positive at first sight, it may, in the long run, have a negative impact on employees through increasing stress and undermining well-being (van Hooft & Crossley, 2008). Additionally, it is important to highlight that enhanced performance does not necessarily indicate higher quality performance. For example, while the threat of layoffs can

indeed prompt performance for some, it can also impede creative performance (Probst et al., 2007) and increases safety violations (Probst, 2002). It is, therefore, of great importance that managers and organizations be aware of these job preservation efforts when making human resource decisions.

Methodological Considerations

As with all empirical research, the methods used in the present thesis should be put under scrutiny. There are some methodological considerations, which may have had an impact on the results of the studies in this research, and, consequently, deserve some commenting.

The first methodological consideration concerns the fact that the studies used questionnaire and self-reports as the primary and only data sources except Study 3. Such data expose the results to a higher risk of common method bias which refers to the inflation in the magnitude of the relationships among variables, for example, correlations (Podsakoff et al., 2003; Spector, Rosen, Richardson, Williams, & Johnson, 2017). Common method bias happens when the variances in the observations are caused by the common data method rather than the actual constructs of interest (Spector et al., 2017). Although Study 3 used supervisor-rated overall performance, which minimizes the threat of common method bias, the design remains largely correlational and involved mainly self-report measures. In the present thesis, the problem of common method variance and the use of self-reported questionnaires especially for Study 1 and Study 2, could be primarily attributed to the focus on personal resources (career adaptability and employability), subjective career success, and individuals' perception of job insecurity. As the variables of interest are subjective phenomenon, they can only be measured using self-reports. Nevertheless, the validity of the findings of this research could be strengthened through replication with other types of data, such as supervisor-rated performance and objective career success measures.

A second potential methodological limitation concerns the possibility of drawing causal inferences as all three studies in this research used cross-sectional data. To conclude causal relationship, the following three conditions must be met: i) there must be an association between the two variables, ii) the direction of association must be established, and iii) no other factors has the potential to influence the relationship (Field, 2005b; Lavrakas, 2008a). While the first condition can be met by establishing correlations among the variables of interest, the second condition usually requires the use of longitudinal data, and the third condition, according to Bollen (1989) is almost impossible to achieve although effects of confounding variables can be controlled. On the whole, this research met the first condition of establishing an association among the variables of interest, but not the second condition of establishing the direction of association as data are cross-sectional. Nonetheless, the findings from this research are still meaningful because existing longitudinal studies and meta-analysis have already ascertained the direction of the relationships of interest. For instance, longitudinal studies indicate that career adaptability and employability positively predict job satisfaction (Fiori et al., 2015; Kirves, Kinnunen, De Cuyper, & Mäkikangas, 2014), job insecurity negatively predict well-being (Hellgren & Sverke, 2003; Mauno & Kinnunen, 1999) and most of the time, job insecurity negatively predicts job performance (H. Wang et al., 2015). However, for Study 2, the use of two independent cross-sectional samples taken at two different time points - i.e., the repeated cross-sectional sample-, should be taken as a strength rather than a limitation. The key idea of Study 2 is to examine the responses of young people of the *same age group* in different labor conditions (which happen to be in two different historical time points) rather than to study how individual responses to job insecurity change over time through a longitudinal study. The repeated cross-sectional design is suitable for this purpose as it allows for estimating changes made at the population level. Hence, it can better advise which model is more relevant in the current labor condition (Lavrakas, 2008b).

A third and final methodological consideration concerns specifically to the sample used in Study 3, which in comparison to Study 1 and 2, is rather specific and small. The

specific characteristic of the sample – male technicians from the engineering department - can affect the generalizability of the findings to other cultures, organizations, and professional background. Although results are in favor of this research, it is however among one of the 'deviant' studies that found job insecurity to promote job performance, and there is a possibility that the results are specific to the sample characteristic presented in Study 3. Due to the specificity of the sample, more research must be done to be able to draw accurate generalization. Besides the sample characteristics, the small sample size is generally believed to pose a problem for multilevel analysis. The small sample size (*N* = 125) implies that the multilevel analysis involved a small number of cluster (k = 5) each with a small cluster size (*n* = ~25), which can be a potential source of bias in the results. Although the small number of groups and group size deviates from the 30/30 norm in multilevel modeling (Kreft, 1996), literature, indicates, however, that the sample size and the number of clusters do not pose any major issues. According to Snijders (2005), the total sample size matters if the effect of a first level variable is of main interest, and subsequently the number of level 2 clusters matters when the effect of the level 2 cluster is of main interest. As Study 3 is interested in the effect at the cluster level – i.e., supervisor's ratings of overall performance-, a total sample size of 125 hence, suffice and is not an issue. Following Snijder's (2015) rationale, multilevel analysis with five clusters may then pose a problem because scholars such as Stegmueller (2013) suggests that estimates of the multilevel model with few clusters are usually biased. However, there is also evidence that demonstrates that estimates remain unbiased regardless of the number of clusters and the type of maximum likelihood estimators used (Elff, Heisig, Schaeffer, & Shikano, 2016; Maas & Hox, 2005). Elff and colleagues (2016) specifically replicated Stegmueller's (2013) analysis with as little as five groups and demonstrated that estimates are unbiased. Similarly, Maas and Hox (2005) through simulation studies involving varying clusters (k = 30, 50, 100) and varying cluster sizes (n = 5, 30, 50), demonstrated that i) regression coefficients and variance components were all estimated with negligible bias and ii) unbalanced cluster sizes does not influence the estimates. Maas and Hox (2005) also indicated that the estimates of

the regression are unbiased for a small sample with ten groups of five. Taken together, the small sample size and the small number of groups are therefore not of major concern.

Future Research

Despite these methodological considerations, the present thesis recommends some suggestions for future research to deepen knowledge and to better support individuals in the whitewater world of work.

With regards to supporting individuals in achieving subjective career success, future studies can consider extending the scope of subjective career success beyond what was covered in this research – i.e., perceived job performance, job satisfaction, life satisfaction, and psychological well-being. Although these indicators are commonly studied, subjective career success can also be represented in many other ways such as overall success perception, financial success, work-life balance, etc. (see Shockley et al., 2016). Based on the notion of protean career, which is a career driven by one's internal values and self-conceptualization of psychological success (Hall, 1996), it follows that individuals can have different definitions to what constitutes their (subjective) career success. Thus, widening the scope to include other subjective career success indicators can allow both research and practice to support individuals in achieving different forms of career success.

With regards to updating knowledge pertaining to achieving career success in whitewater environment, the re-examination of existing relationships involving employability/career adaptability on career success, in the presence of the other (career adaptability/employability) and in the current labor market context is recommended. Like in Study 2 of the present research, various relationships concerning employability were conducted in the absence of career adaptability, and with the assumption that employability still matters in the current labor market context. Indeed, results from Study 1 and Study 2 of the present research have demonstrated that employability still matters and will continue to matter in years to come. However, as both employability and career adaptability are related

psychosocial constructs whose influence on career success does not happen remotely from each other, there is a need to re-examine their influence on career success in each other's presence. For example, as demonstrated in Study 1 of the present research, career adaptability a known predictor of job performance (Fiori et al., 2015; Ohme & Zacher, 2015) lost its predictive role in the presence of employability. However, to date, despite the increased research attention on career adaptability since its special focal issue in the Journal of Vocational Behavior in 2012, there are no studies (except Study 1 of the present research) that examine the performance of career adaptability in the presence of employability and vice versa. Findings from this research have highlighted the need to refresh knowledge in this area and recommends further research.

With regards to response to job insecurity, future research suggestions relate to the methodological considerations highlighted in the previous section; that is, to consider the use of a more representative sample. In addition to sample size, future studies can take into consideration the factor of time and take on a longitudinal approach to study the effects of job insecurity on performance. This recommendation is based on Kinicki and Latack (1990) exertion that coping is a process that changes over time. As Study 3 was conducted at the beginning of a reorganization process, the increased experience of job insecurity is at the initial phase and hence prompted performance only for some of the employees. As the period of job insecurity lengthens, one's resources to engage in higher performance to demonstrate their worth to the organization may begin to deteriorate and a lower performance result. As such, it may be worth to examine the motivating factor of job insecurity on job performance (in the presence of moderators) over time.

Conclusions

In conclusion, this research contributed evidence indicating that the concept of employability is still relevant amidst the rising importance of career adaptability, and its role is not being replaced by career adaptability. It also contributed initial evidence that the

presence of employability can plausibly attenuate the effect of career adaptability and that its role could be potentially more dependable and consistent than that of career adaptability. By empirically demonstrating the commonality shared, this research highlighted the opportunity for refining and merging the two concepts into a single more parsimonious concept, which may be more relevant to the contemporary workforce; i.e., a concept that considers the need for individuals to cope proactively with pervasive changes, and be attractive and relevant in the labor market. The proposed merger could be beneficial to both research and practice because the psychosocial employability currently lacks a unified measurement scale, and can benefit from the already established Career Adapt-Ability Scale. As most employability programs tend to be based on building human capital resources, the merger with employability could mean that employability programs can be potentially more holistic because developing career adaptability as a part of employability implies developing psychological and career identity resources.

After establishing the relevance of employability in the current labor market context, this research further clarified the role of employability (and job insecurity) in different labor conditions. Specifically, when there is some degree of economic development and job availability, employability is a personal resource that acts as an antecedent of subjective career success, and their effect takes place through levels of job insecurity that are derived, at least in part, from these personal resources. On the other hand, in times of slow economic development, job scarcity and labor market volatility, employability should not be considered as an antecedent, but as a coping resource for alleviating the effects of job insecurity. That is, this research also contributed evidence about the protective role of employability on well-being and life satisfaction. The changing roles of employability in different labor condition suggested that researchers need to be more sensitive to the contextual factors from which the data is drawn in order to apply the appropriate model to be precise and effective in the study outcomes. A section devoted to clarifying the contextual factors is hence recommended so that consumers of science can be supported to make the appropriate inferences and application. In addition, keeping in view that labor market uncertainty,

turbulence, and volatility would be commonplace in the future, this study suggested merits in developing one's employability in both high and low levels of labor market harshness. Organizations are also recommended to continue investing in the development of their employees' employability when labor conditions tighten because both organizations and employees can benefit from the different roles of employability when labor market (both internal and external) conditions or macro factor deteriorates.

In the event where the labor market (both internal and external) conditions deteriorate and the experience of job insecurity increases, organizations are recommended to raise the visibility of the organization's fair organizational justice culture. Reassuring employees that the organization will remain fair in distributing rewards can potentially give employees more certainty in judging the possibility of retaining their current job, which may, in turn, prevent impression management in the form of enhanced task and contextual performance. The present research has not only contributed evidence that low distributive justice perception can facilitate impression management strategies in the form of enhanced task and contextual performance but also contributed evidence that employees who were previously not as intrinsically motivated to perform are highly likely to attempt to preserve their jobs through performance-related impression management tactics. Organizations are therefore recommended to be aware of such job preservation efforts when making human resources decisions.

SUMMARY

Literature Review

Led by advancement in technology and together with globalization, the pace of today's fourth industrial revolution is reshaping the economy, business landscape, and the nature of work faster than before. As organizations embrace new technology to enhance productivity and competitiveness, new jobs emerge while some undergo transformation, displacement, or threatened by redundancy. In addition, the competitive global market and economic instability compel organizations to undertake measures such as restructuring and lay-off to remain competitive and relevant. As a result, organizational changes became pervasive, and job insecurity increases (Bimrose, Barnes, & Hughes, 2008). Job insecurity is defined as the prolonged experience of uncertainty about the continuance and stability of one's present job (Shoss, 2017). It includes the fear of losing the current job and becoming unemployed and losing roles and responsibilities at work or being assigned less desirable work position (Hellgren, Sverke, & Isaksson, 1999; Kang, Gold, & Kim, 2012). Job insecurity has garnered attention mostly as a hindrance-stressor and has negative consequences for both individuals and the organization (e.g., Cheng & Chan, 2008; Gilboa, Shirom, Fried, & Cooper, 2008). For instance, most studies demonstrate detrimental impact of job insecurity on physiological and psychological well-being, job attitudes, and job performance (Cheng & Chan, 2008; De Witte, Pienaar, & De Cuyper, 2016; Niessen & Jimmieson, 2016; Probst, Stewart, Gruys, & Tierney, 2007). However, job insecurity may not necessarily be a hindrance stressor all the time (Cavanaugh, Boswell, Roehling, & Boudreau, 2000; Lepine, Podsakoff, & Lepine, 2005). For example, there are a minority of studies that suggest that under certain circumstances, job insecurity can create a motive to secure one's job which leads to enhanced performance (Fischer et al., 2005; Probst et al., 2007; Staufenbiel & König, 2010) and an increase in extra-role behavior (Fischer et al., 2005; Staufenbiel & König, 2010). However, these positive findings are a minority, and job insecurity remains largely a hindrance-stressor. As eliminating job insecurity is not possible, the development of one's ability to cope and to adapt to the rapidly changing labor market demands becomes important. Recommendations

in literature generally point towards developing employability and career adaptability (De Witte, 2005; ILO, 2013; UK Commission for Employment and Skills (UKCES), 2014).

Briefly, employability is the ability to retain or obtain a job in both internal and external labor market (Forrier & Sels, 2003a; Fugate, Kinicki, & Ashforth, 2004; Hillage & Pollard, 1999). It entails individual factors that increase the likelihood to gain employment and be successful in their chosen job (Hogan, Chamorro-Premuzic, & Kaiser, 2013; McQuaid, 2006; Yorke, 2004). Career adaptability is the readiness to cope with current and anticipated career-related tasks, transitions, and changes (Savickas, 2005). It is a form of proactive coping resource (Klehe, Zikic, van Vianen, Koen, & Buyken, 2012), which is future-oriented and involves the use of personal resources, goals setting, and vision realization to overcome work-related challenges (Aspinwall & Taylor, 1997; Davis & Asliturk, 2011). Employability, and recently career adaptability are recognized as concepts crucial for career success in the current and future labor market (Forrier & Sels, 2003b; Hall, 2002; Hamtiaux, Houssemand, & Vrignaud, 2013; Hogan et al., 2013; McQuaid & Lindsay, 2005; Zacher, 2014). To date, research have demonstrated that employability and career adaptability can support individuals in achieving (subjective) career success and buffer the negative consequence of job insecurity (Fiori, Bollmann, & Rossier, 2015; Green, 2011; Ohme & Zacher, 2015; Santilli, Nota, Ginevra, & Soresi, 2014; Silla, De Cuyper, Gracia, Peiró, & De Witte, 2009; Stoltz, Wolff, Monroe, Farris, & Mazahreh, 2013; Sverke, Hellgren, & Näswall, 2002).

The concept of employability gained attention as a construct important to career success in the late twentieth century because it reflects one's attractiveness and ability to make labor market transition (Berntson, Näswall, & Sverke, 2010) when organizations could no longer offer job security. Based on the human capital theory (Becker, 1975) and the resource-based view of the firm (Barney, 1991), individuals with more employability resources are more attractive to employers because they tend to possess more human capital (competences, knowledge, skills, personality, and dispositions) that enable them to be effective at work and to contribute to the organization's productive capabilities. Therefore, individuals with higher employability tend to have more job alternatives and a higher potential

to obtain another job. This subsequently gives individuals a sense of control over their career and the confidence to handle the threat of possible job loss, hence supporting them to cope with job insecurity (Fugate et al., 2004; Vanhercke, De Cuyper, Peeters, & De Witte, 2014). Besides increasing the possibilities of obtaining a job, the ability to carry out work roles and task effectively can positively influence one's work performances, rewards received from the organization, and subsequently, the perception of career success. For example, employability has been found to promote well-being, life satisfaction, (Briscoe, Henagan, Burton, & Murphy, 2012; De Cuyper, Notelaers, & De Witte, 2009; Forrier & Sels, 2003a; Green, 2011; Silla et al., 2009), job performance (Rosenberg, Heimler, & Morote, 2012; Van Der Heijde & Van Der Heijden, 2006) and job satisfaction (Barnett & Bradley, 2007; Gamboa, Gracia, Ripoll, & Peiró, 2009; González-Romá, Gamboa, & Peiró, 2018; Van Der Heijde & Van Der Heijden, 2006).

Among the various approaches to employability, this research adopts the psychosocial model of employability in Study 1 and perceived employability in Study 2. According to Fugate et al. (2004), psychosocial employability is the synergistic interaction of a multitude of individual characteristics that foster adaptive affect, behavior, and cognition, grouped into three dimensions: personal adaptability, career identity and, human and social capital. Personal adaptability refers to the readiness and capacity to change personal factors such as behaviors and thoughts in response to environmental demands. Career identity refers to how individuals define themselves in the career context. It is the driver of career motivations, values, interests, and decisions. Human capital refers to skills and knowledge, such as education, training, and competencies. Lastly, social capital refers to the individual's social network that is useful in supporting to gaining/maintaining employment (Fugate et al., 2004). The psychosocial employability, however, does not take into consideration one's perception of their labor market opportunities and is considered as objective employability. Perceived employability, a subjective approach, takes into consideration personal and situational aspects when assessing employability – in a sense, it is the self-assessment of one's repertoire of skills and competences compared to labor market demands (De Cuyper, Van

der Heijden, & De Witte, 2011). Thus, perceived employability is defined as the self-appraisal of one's capacity to obtain a new job (Berntson & Marklund, 2007; Rothwell & Arnold, 2007).

Unlike employability, attention on career adaptability as a construct important to career success grew only in the last decade and is related to the pervasive change, increasing job insecurity and changing nature of work in the twenty-first century. One of the key feature that facilitated its emergence is the shift in career development pattern from a traditional and hierarchical pattern to one that is increasingly multifaceted, transitional, self-directed and personalized (Bimrose et al., 2008; Savickas, 2008, 2013). Career adaptability is purported to support individuals in adapting and coping with changes and career-related challenges in the contemporary labor market. It is a person-centered, proactive and future-oriented psychosocial construct, which comprises a multitude of attitudes, beliefs, and competencies grouped into four dimensions: concern, control, curiosity, and confidence (Savickas, 2013). According to Savickas and Porfeli (2012), concern refers to the ability to plan for future career developments, build a career vision, and to prepare actions to achieve the visions. Control reflects an individuals' decisiveness and the extent of intra personal influence on their situations. Curiosity refers to the tendency to broaden horizons, explore alternative and opportunities regarding one's possible self and/or environment. Lastly, confidence implies the belief in oneself and one's ability to overcome challenges and to achieve goals. In short, career adaptability encompasses planning the future career, making decisions towards achieving the vision, exploring various career options, and having the confidence to overcome challenges in order to achieve career goals.

Although the emphasis on the concept of career adaptability gained traction mainly during the early twenty-first century, empirical evidence that corroborates the notion that career adaptability support individuals to cope with career-related challenges and to achieve career success are aplenty. For example, studies revealed that career adaptability promotes positive and successful mid-career transition (A. Brown, Bimrose, Barnes, & Hughes, 2012), enhance coping during job loss, and support people in finding alternative employment of better quality even when economic and labor conditions are challenging (Ebberwein,

Krieshok, Diven, & Prosser, 2004; Klehe et al., 2012), positively predict person-job fit and person-organization fit (Guan et al., 2013; Jiang, 2016), career satisfaction and work engagement (Chan & Mai, 2015; Fiori et al., 2015; Rossier, Zecca, Stauffer, Maggiori, & Dauwalder, 2012; Santilli et al., 2014), and well-being (Maggiori, Johnston, Krings, Massoudi, & Rossier, 2013).

Besides, through virtues the four dimensions of career adaptability, the positive effects of career adaptability can also be understood through goal setting theory (Locke & Latham, 2006) which assert that motivation comes from the desire and intention to reach a goal. Although career adaptability itself may not explicitly entail goal setting, the career concern dimension involves the building of a personal career vision, career alternatives or career aspirations, which represents one's desired future state. In a sense, this is a form of a career goal that is personally appealing and meaningful to the individual, and according to the goal-setting theory, it motivates individuals to achieve their desired outcome. Klehe and colleagues (2012) also suggest that the personal appeal and meaningfulness of the formulated career alternatives may strengthen one's self-determination to achieve the desired future despite challenges and obstacles. They further elaborate that the belief in one's personal responsibility and ability to shape their future enables them to face economic stressors with optimism and a strong motivation to achieve their vision and aspiration. This exertion is in line with the conceptualization of the control and confidence dimension of career adaptability.

Research Objectives:

Despite the rising attention on career adaptability as an element important for career success, scholars believe that employability will continue to be important as it provides individuals with competences to gain and maintain employment of preference (De Cuyper, Piccoli, Fontinha, & De Witte, 2018). However, most of the recent studies on career success have yet to examine the role of career adaptability and employability together. That is to say,

the impact of the two constructs in the presence of each other remains empirically unclear. Given that career adaptability emerged in response to the changing work and career development context in the whitewater environment, it is plausible that the contemporary construct - career adaptability exerts more influence or replace the role of employability on career success. Therefore, the first question this research would like to answer is: (Q1) “How relevant is employability despite the rising attention on career adaptability?” In addition, given that both employability and career adaptability are related psychosocial constructs that share some conceptual similarities, there may be possibilities that the commonality between the two constructs predict career success better than it will on its own or that one of the two constructs may perform like a subset to the other. Hence, the second question this research would like to answer is: (Q2) “What is the extent of commonality shared between employability and career adaptability?” Q1 and Q2 are examined in Study 1, which bears the overall objective of understanding the relevance of employability to subjective career success amidst the rising attention on career adaptability in today’s world of work.

Recognizing that job insecurity will continue to intensify due to economic fluctuations and technological advancement (Chung & Mau, 2014; De Witte, 2005), scholars believe that employability will continue to be important (De Cuyper et al., 2018) because it can also buffer the negative impacts of job insecurity on health and well-being (Briscoe et al., 2012; De Cuyper et al., 2009; Silla et al., 2009). However, findings on the role of employability (namely perceived employability) and job insecurity on outcomes such as life satisfaction and well-being are rather inconsistent. For example, there are studies that suggest job insecurity as a mediator (see figure 1.1a) (De Cuyper, Bernhard-Oettel, Berntson, De Witte, & Alarco, 2008) and studies that suggest perceived employability as a moderator (see figure 1.1b) (Silla et al., 2009). Given that macro-level factors such as economic instability and labor market conditions influence job insecurity (Anderson & Pontusson, 2007; De Weerdt, De Witte, Catellani, & Milesi, 2004) and perceived employability (Lübke and Erlinghagen, 2014), the impact of labor condition could plausibly explain the observations. In view of this, Study 2 sets out to clarify the role of employability and job insecurity on subjective career success in

different labor conditions, hence addressing the third research objective: (Q3) “Which model (mediation or moderation) is more relevant in describing the role of employability and job insecurity regarding psychological well-being in the current labor market context?”

Besides being able to support individuals in maintaining and achieving career success in the contemporary world of work, it can be beneficial to support individuals in maintaining or enhancing performance when they find themselves in situations of intensifying job insecurity. Although literature indicates that job insecurity is mainly a hindrance stressor that impedes performance (e.g., Cheng & Chan, 2008; Gilboa, Shirom, Fried, & Cooper, 2008), there are also a minority of studies that demonstrate the opposite. Though a minority, it showed that job insecurity, under certain circumstances, can create a motive to secure one’s job which leads to enhanced performance (e.g., Probst, Stewart, Gruys, & Tierney, 2007) and an increase in extra-role behavior (Fischer et al., 2005; Staufenbiel & König, 2010). For example, Feather and Rauter (2004) found employees who faced job insecurity to go beyond what is required of them at work (i.e. extra-role behavior) when there are some transactional benefits (such as surviving the layoff) to be gained. Hence, in light of job preservation motivation (Shoss, 2017), which suggest that job insecurity motivates individuals to act in ways they believe might reduce the possibility of job loss, Study 3 sets out to uncover when do employees show a behavioral response to job insecurity in the form enhanced overall job performance. Study 3 will address the research question of (Q4) “When does job insecurity prompt performance?”

Results

The overall objective of this research is to support individuals in maintaining and achieving career success in the whitewater work environment. It is achieved through three studies, and the following sections detail the findings of each study.

Study 1

Through a sample comprising 160 Mexican graduates from various private and public universities in Mexico City, Study 1 examined the relative variable importance of employability and career adaptability when predicting two subjective career success indicators - namely job satisfaction and perceived job performance, using relative weights analysis and commonality analysis. One of the most notable results was that career adaptability predicted job satisfaction in the absence of employability but not in the presence of employability. The results also revealed that employability was the main contributor to job satisfaction, followed by the commonality shared between employability and career adaptability. In this scenario, the career adaptability resources appeared to be almost a subset of employability resource because its unique contribution only accounted for only .51% of the total variance explained in job satisfaction. On the other hand, results indicated that career adaptability contributed to the prediction of job performance two times more than employability. However, the sum of the unique contribution by career adaptability and employability is only half of the contribution made by the common resources (i.e., commonality). In this scenario, the majority of the career adaptability resources that predicted perceived job performance are pretty much the same as the employability resources. This suggests that either of the concepts alone may suffice when predicting job performance, although career adaptability may be a slightly better predictor.

In sum, Study 1 addressed research question Q1 by demonstrating that employability is still a relevant concept in today's labor market despite the rising attention on career adaptability, and addressed research question Q2 by demonstrating that employability and career adaptability share a satisfactory amount of commonality when predicting subjective career success. Study 1 further demonstrated that employability might have a larger role because its predictive role is more dependable than career adaptability. It also suggests that the presence of employability could plausibly attenuate the role of career adaptability on subjective career success and vice versa.

Study 2

The Spanish labor market situation offered an opportunity to examine the competing models because the global economic breakdown in the year 2008 has a huge detrimental impact on the Spanish labor market for many years following. ¬¬¬Hence, through two cross-sectional samples drawn from the Spanish population in the year 2008 ('normal' labor market condition) and 2011 ('harsh' labor market condition), Study 2 tested the two competing models – mediation or moderation model in two different labor conditions. Specifically, the mediation model depicts the role of perceived employability as an antecedent of psychological well-being and job satisfaction (subjective career success) and job insecurity as a mediator. The moderation model, on the other hand, depicts perceived employability as a moderator between job insecurity and the two subjective career success indicators.

Results from Study 2 demonstrated that the data supported the mediation model as indicated by literature, but only in normal condition (2008). The main reason the mediation model was not significant in harsh labor condition (2011), was that perceived employability did not predict job insecurity. This phenomenon could be attributed to the extent of job destruction, job scarcity, and poor employment outlook brought about by the economic crisis and existing structural issues in the Spanish labor market. As a result of the labor market scarcity and poor employment outlook, individuals perceive their ability to obtain a new job or to maintain their current job to be beyond the influence of their employability. In other word, in times where the labor market is tight, the positive appraisal of one's employability does not influence the experience of job insecurity because labor market conditions such as labor supply and demand exert a stronger influence.

Results from Study 2 also demonstrated that the data supported the moderation model as indicated by literature. However, unlike the mediation model, the moderation model was supported only in harsh condition (2011). The main reason the moderation model was not significant in normal condition (2008) was that the interaction term was not significant. The moderation role of employability in only harsh labor condition (2011) can be understood through the attribution theory (Weiner, 1986). Because of the extent of job destruction, job

scarcity and poor employment outlook in 2011, individuals may tend to make external attribution to explain for their situation, and the experience of job insecurity as obtaining or maintaining a job is beyond the influence of ones' ability. In such situation, the positive self-appraisal of one's resources – i.e., perceived employability can support individuals to preserve their self-esteem and enhance the anticipation of a future identity upon market recovery (Green, 2011). In this respect, employability buffers the impact of job insecurity on subjective career success and functions like a protective mechanism in harsh labor condition.

In sum, Study 2 addressed research question Q3 by demonstrating that the mediation model is more relevant in predicting psychological well-being and life satisfaction in normal labor condition while the moderation model is more relevant in harsh labor condition. That is to say, the moderation model is more relevant in describing the role of employability and job insecurity in the current labor market context. In other word, during harsh condition, employability should not be considered as an antecedent of insecurity and well-being, but as a coping resource for alleviating the effects of job insecurity.

Study 3

Through a sample comprising 103 employees and five supervisors from a technical maintenance department of a Dutch public transportation company, Study 3 examined when do employees show a behavioral response to job insecurity in the form of enhanced overall job performance with intrinsic motivation and perceived distributive justice as moderators. Results indicated that the interaction of intrinsic motivation and job insecurity, and the interaction of perceived distributive justice and job insecurity were significantly related to performance. Specifically, the slopes analyses demonstrated that job insecurity was positively related to performance for i) employees low on intrinsic motivation and ii) for employees who perceived distributive justice to be low in the organization. The results were replicated when supervisor-rated overall performance was replaced with employees' self-reports of contextual performance (i.e., organizational citizenship behavior). In another word,

the results indicated that employees demonstrate higher overall performance (supervisor-rated) in response to job insecurity when they are not previously intrinsically motivated to perform to the best of their abilities (i.e., low intrinsic motivation) and when they feel that they cannot rely on the organization to reward performance fairly (i.e., low perceived distributive justice). The latter contradicted the hypothesis in Study 3; results indicated that employees are more likely to resort to active coping when perceived distributive justice is low rather than high. This could be because fair dismissal decisions would likely take into account the past performance records and would be less likely to be influenced only by the current performance or 'impression management' tactics.

In sum, Study 3 addressed research question Q4 by demonstrating that employees may attempt to secure their job by increasing their performance when they realize that their ordinary performance or the lack of organizational fairness may put them at great risk of losing their job. Although the result reflected a positive relationship between job insecurity and job performance, Study 3 did not clearly indicate that job insecurity could prompt (i.e., motivate) performance when performance is instrumental in securing one's job. Instead, Study 3 seemed to have uncovered conditions that can plausibly facilitate impression management.

Implications and Conclusion

Overall, this research contributed evidence indicating that the concept of employability is still relevant amidst the rising importance of career adaptability, and its role is not being replaced by career adaptability. It also contributed initial evidence that the presence of employability can plausibly attenuate the effect of career adaptability and that its role could be potentially more dependable and consistent than that of career adaptability. By empirically demonstrating the commonality shared, this research highlighted the opportunity for refining and merging the two concepts into a single more parsimonious concept, which may be more relevant to the contemporary workforce; i.e., a concept that considers the need

for individuals to cope proactively with pervasive changes, and be attractive and relevant in the labor market. The proposed merger could be beneficial to both research and practice because the psychosocial employability currently lacks a unified measurement scale, and can benefit from the already established Career Adapt-Ability Scale used for measuring career adaptability. This merger proposal is aligned with the suggestion by Lo Presti and Pluviano (2016) to operationalize employability as the interaction of career identity or self-management, professional development, and environment monitoring. As most employability programs tend to be based on building human capital resources (International Monetary Fund, The World Bank, ILO & OECD, 2016; Kluve, 2014), the merger with career adaptability could mean that employability programs can be potentially more holistic because developing career adaptability as a part of employability implies developing psychological and career identity resources (Hirschi, 2012). The benefits are manifold - enhancing employability and career adaptability simultaneously, and cost/time effective for both career practitioners and participants.

After establishing the relevance of employability in the current labor market context, this research further clarified the role of employability (and job insecurity) in different labor conditions. Specifically, when there is some degree of economic development and job availability, employability is a personal resource that acts as an antecedent of subjective career success, and their effect takes place through levels of job insecurity that are derived, at least in part, from these personal resources. On the other hand, in times of slow economic development, job scarcity and labor market volatility, employability should not be considered as an antecedent, but as a coping resource for alleviating the effects of job insecurity. That is, this research also contributed evidence about the protective role of employability on well-being and life satisfaction. The changing roles of employability in different labor condition suggested that researchers need to be more sensitive to the contextual factors from which the data is drawn in order to apply the appropriate model (mediation or moderation) to be precise and effective in the study outcomes. A section devoted to clarifying the contextual factors is hence recommended so that consumers of science can be supported to make the

appropriate inferences and application. Such information is important because studies have established how employability (especially perceived employability) and job insecurity can be influenced by economic and/or labor conditions (Berglund & Wallinder, 2015; Berntson et al., 2006; McQuaid & Lindsay, 2005; Vanhercke et al., 2014). In addition, keeping in view that labor market uncertainty, turbulence, and volatility would be commonplace in the future, this study suggested merits in developing one's employability in both high and low levels of labor market harshness. Organizations are also recommended to continue investing in the development of their employees' employability when labor conditions tighten because both organizations and employees can benefit from the different roles of employability when labor market (both internal and external) conditions or macro factor deteriorates. This research reinforces existing evidence that emphasizes the importance of employability (McQuaid & Lindsay, 2005).

In the event where the labor market (both internal and external) conditions deteriorate and the experience of job insecurity increases, organizations are recommended to raise the visibility of the organization's fair organizational justice culture. Reassuring employees that the organization will remain fair in distributing rewards can potentially give employees more certainty in judging the possibility of retaining their current job, which may, in turn, prevent impression management in the form of enhanced task and contextual performance. The present research has not only contributed evidence that low distributive justice perception can facilitate such performance-related impression management strategies but also contributed evidence that employees who were previously not as intrinsically motivated to perform are highly likely to attempt to preserve their jobs through performance-related impression management tactics (Bolino, 1999; Huang et al., 2013). Organizations are, therefore, recommended to be aware of such job preservation efforts when making human resources decisions.

RESUMEN

Revisión de Literatura

El exponencial avance de la tecnología y la globalización motivan que la cuarta revolución industrial esté cambiando la economía, el panorama empresarial y la naturaleza del trabajo, de una forma mucho más rápida y drástica que la evolución seguida en décadas anteriores. Las organizaciones adoptan nuevas tecnologías para mejorar su productividad y su competitividad, nuevos trabajos emergen mientras que otros sufren una profunda transformación, desplazamiento, o se ven amenazados por su desaparición. Además, el mercado global competitivo y la inestabilidad económica obligan a las organizaciones a emprender medidas como la reestructuración y el despido de empleados para seguir siendo competitivas y relevantes. Como resultado, los cambios organizativos son constantes, y aumenta de forma muy notable la inseguridad laboral que sufren los trabajadores (Bimrose, Barnes, & Hughes, 2008). La inseguridad laboral se define como la experiencia prolongada de incertidumbre sobre la continuidad y la estabilidad del trabajo actual (Shoss, 2017). Incluye el miedo a perder el trabajo actual y a quedar desempleado, a la pérdida de funciones y responsabilidades en el trabajo, o a ser asignado a un puesto de trabajo menos deseable (Hellgren, Sverke, & Isaksson, 1999; Kang, Gold, & Kim, 2012). La inseguridad laboral ha llamado la atención sobre todo como un factor de estrés y tiene consecuencias negativas tanto para los individuos como para la organización (e.g., Cheng & Chan, 2008; Gilboa, Shirom, Fried, & Cooper, 2008). Por ejemplo, la mayoría de los estudios demuestran el impacto perjudicial de la inseguridad laboral en el bienestar fisiológico y psicológico, las actitudes laborales y el desempeño laboral (Cheng & Chan, 2008; De Witte, Pienaar, & De Cuyper, 2016; Niessen & Jimmieson, 2016; Probst, Stewart, Gruys, & Tierney, 2007). Sin embargo, la inseguridad laboral puede que no sea necesariamente un factor estresante en cualquier situación (Cavanaugh, Boswell, Roehling, & Boudreau, 2000; Lepine, Podsakoff, & Lepine, 2005). Por ejemplo, una minoría de estudios sugieren que, bajo ciertas circunstancias, la inseguridad laboral puede crear un motivo para asegurar el puesto de trabajo a través de mejorar el propio rendimiento laboral (Fischer et al., 2005; Probst et al.,

2007; Staufenbiel & König, 2010), y a través de un aumento en el comportamiento extra-rol (Fischer et al., 2005; Staufenbiel & König, 2010). Sin embargo, estos resultados positivos son una minoría, y la inseguridad laboral sigue siendo considerada en gran medida un factor estresante. Como la eliminación completa de la inseguridad laboral no es posible, el desarrollo de la capacidad de los individuos para hacer frente y adaptarse a las demandas cambiantes del mercado laboral se vuelve un elemento importante. Las recomendaciones en la literatura generalmente apuntan hacia el desarrollo de la empleabilidad y la adaptabilidad profesional (De Witte, 2005; ILO, 2013; UK Commission for Employment and Skills (UKCES), 2014).

Brevemente, la empleabilidad es la capacidad de retener u obtener un empleo tanto en el mercado laboral interno como externo (Forrier & Sels, 2003a; Fugate, Kinicki, & Ashforth, 2004; Hillage & Pollard, 1999). Implica factores individuales que aumentan la probabilidad de obtener un empleo y tener éxito en el trabajo elegido (Hogan, Chamorro-Premuzic, & Kaiser, 2013; McQuaid, 2006; Yorke, 2004). La adaptabilidad profesional es la disposición de hacer frente a las tareas actuales y futuras relacionadas con la carrera, las transiciones y los cambios laborales (Savickas, 2005). Es una forma de recurso de afrontamiento proactivo (Klehe, Zikic, van Vianen, Koen, & Buyken, 2012), que está orientada hacia el futuro e implica el uso de recursos personales, el establecimiento de objetivos y la realización de la visión para superar los desafíos relacionados con el trabajo (Aspinwall & Taylor, 1997; Davis & Asliturk, 2011). La empleabilidad y, recientemente, la adaptabilidad profesional se reconoce como conceptos cruciales para el éxito profesional en el mercado laboral actual y futuro (Forrier & Sels, 2003b; Hall, 2002; Hamtiaux, Houssemand, & Vrignaud, 2013; Hogan et al., 2013; McQuaid & Lindsay, 2005; Zacher, 2014). Hasta la fecha, las investigaciones han demostrado que la empleabilidad y la adaptabilidad profesional pueden ayudar a las personas a lograr el éxito profesional (subjetivo) y amortiguar las consecuencias negativas de la inseguridad laboral (Fiori, Bollmann, & Rossier, 2015; Green, 2011; Ohme & Zacher, 2015; Santilli, Nota, Ginevra, &

Soresi, 2014; Silla, De Cuyper, Gracia, Peiró, & De Witte, 2009; Stoltz, Wolff, Monroe, Farris, & Mazahreh, 2013; Sverke, Hellgren, & Näswall, 2002).

El constructo de empleabilidad llamó la atención como una construcción importante para el éxito profesional a finales del siglo veinte, ya que refleja el atractivo de uno y la capacidad de hacer frente a las transiciones del mercado de trabajo (Berntson, Näswall, & Sverke, 2010) cuando las organizaciones ya no podían ofrecer seguridad en el empleo. Basado en la teoría del capital humano (Becker, 1975) y en la teoría de recursos de la empresa (Barney, 1991), las personas con más recursos de empleabilidad son más atractivas para los empleadores, ya que tienden a poseer más capital humano (competencias, conocimientos, habilidades y características de personalidad) que les permitan ser efectivos en el trabajo y contribuir a las capacidades productivas de la organización. Por lo tanto, las personas con mayor empleabilidad tienden a tener más oportunidades de trabajo y un mayor potencial para obtener otro trabajo. Posteriormente, esto les proporciona a las personas un sentido de control sobre su carrera y la confianza para manejar la amenaza de una posible pérdida de empleo, por lo que les ayuda a afrontar la inseguridad laboral (Fugate et al., 2004; Vanhercke, De Cuyper, Peeters, & De Witte, 2014). Además de aumentar las posibilidades de obtener un puesto de trabajo, la capacidad de llevar a cabo las funciones de trabajo y las tareas con eficacia puede influir positivamente en las actuaciones el trabajo, los premios recibidos de la organización, y posteriormente, la percepción del éxito de la carrera. Por ejemplo, se ha encontrado evidencia sobre la influencia de la empleabilidad para promover el bienestar, la satisfacción con la vida (Briscoe, Henagan, Burton, & Murphy, 2012; De Cuyper, Notelaers, & De Witte, 2009; Forrier & Sels, 2003a; Green, 2011; Silla et al., 2009), el desempeño laboral (Rosenberg, Heimler, & Morote, 2012; Van Der Heijde & Van Der Heijden, 2006) y la satisfacción laboral (Barnett & Bradley, 2007; Gamboa, Gracia, Ripoll, & Peiró, 2009; González-Romá, Gamboa, & Peiró, 2018; Van Der Heijde & Van Der Heijden, 2006).

Entre los diversos enfoques para estudiar la empleabilidad, esta investigación adopta el modelo psicosocial de empleabilidad en el Estudio 1 y el de la empleabilidad percibida en

el Estudio 2. Según Fugate et al. (2004), la empleabilidad psicosocial es la interacción sinérgica de una multitud de características individuales que fomentan el afecto, el comportamiento y la cognición adaptativos, agrupados en tres dimensiones: adaptabilidad personal, identidad profesional y capital humano y social. La adaptabilidad personal se refiere a la disposición y la capacidad de cambiar los factores personales tales como comportamientos y pensamientos en respuesta a las demandas ambientales. La identidad de carrera se refiere a cómo los individuos se definen a sí mismos en el contexto de la carrera. Es el motor de las motivaciones de carrera, valores, intereses y decisiones. El capital humano se refiere a las habilidades y conocimientos, como la educación, la capacitación y las competencias. Por último, el capital social se refiere a la red social del individuo que es útil para ayudar a obtener / mantener un empleo (Fugate et al., 2004). La empleabilidad psicosocial, sin embargo, no toma en consideración la percepción de las oportunidades en el mercado laboral y se considera como la empleabilidad como una variable objetiva. La empleabilidad percibida, que adopta un enfoque subjetivo, toma en consideración aspectos personales y situacionales al evaluar la empleabilidad - en un sentido, es la autoevaluación del propio repertorio de habilidades y competencias con respecto a las demandas del mercado de trabajo (De Cuyper et al., 2011). Por lo tanto, la empleabilidad percibida se define como la autoevaluación de la capacidad de la persona para obtener un nuevo trabajo (Berntson & Marklund, 2007; Rothwell & Arnold, 2007).

A diferencia de la empleabilidad, la atención a la adaptabilidad profesional como un constructo importante para el éxito profesional se ha desarrollado casi en exclusiva en la última década y está relacionada con el cambio interminable, el aumento de la inseguridad laboral y la naturaleza cambiante del trabajo en el siglo XXI. Una de las características clave que facilitó su aparición es el cambio en el patrón de desarrollo profesional, desde un patrón tradicional y jerárquico a uno cada vez más multifacético, de transición, auto-dirigido y personalizado (Bimrose et al., 2008; Savickas, 2008, 2013). La adaptabilidad profesional pretende ayudar a las personas a adaptarse y hacer frente a los cambios y desafíos relacionados con la carrera en el mercado laboral contemporáneo. Se trata de una

construcción psicosocial centrada en la persona, proactiva y orientada al futuro que comprende una multitud de actitudes, creencias y competencias agrupadas en cuatro dimensiones: preocupación, control, curiosidad y confianza (Savickas, 2013). De acuerdo con Savickas y Porfeli (2012), la dimensión de preocupación se refiere a la capacidad para planificar futuros desarrollos de carrera, construir una visión de la carrera, y preparar acciones para alcanzar esas visiones. La dimensión de control refleja la decisión individual y el grado de influencia intra-personal en sus situaciones. La dimensión de curiosidad se refiere a la tendencia a ampliar horizontes, explorar alternativas y oportunidades con respecto a uno mismo y/o el entorno posible. Por último, la dimensión de confianza implica la creencia en uno mismo y la propia capacidad para superar los desafíos y alcanzar los objetivos. En resumen, la adaptabilidad profesional abarca la planificación de la futura carrera, la toma de decisiones hacia el logro de la visión, explorando varias opciones de carrera, y tener la confianza para superar los desafíos con el fin de lograr objetivos de carrera.

Aunque el énfasis en el concepto de la adaptabilidad profesional ganó fuerza principalmente a principios del siglo veintiuno, la evidencia empírica que corrobora la idea de que la adaptabilidad profesional apoya a las personas para hacer frente a los desafíos relacionados con la carrera y para alcanzar el éxito profesional es abundante. Por ejemplo, los estudios revelaron que la adaptabilidad profesional promueve una transición positiva y exitosa en la mitad de la carrera (A. Brown, Bimrose, Barnes, & Hughes, 2012), mejora la capacidad de afrontamiento durante la pérdida de empleo y ayuda a las personas a encontrar un empleo alternativo de mejor calidad incluso cuando las condiciones económicas y laborales son desafiantes (Ebberwein, Krieshok, Diven, & Prosser, 2004; Klehe et al., 2012), y además predice positivamente el ajuste persona-trabajo y persona-organización (Guan et al., 2013; Jiang, 2016), la satisfacción profesional y el engagement (Chan & Mai, 2015; Fiori et al., 2015; Rossier, Zecca, Stauffer, Maggiori, & Dauwalder, 2012; Santilli et al., 2014), y el bienestar (Maggiori, Johnston, Krings, Massoudi, & Rossier, 2013).

Además, a través de las virtudes de las cuatro dimensiones de la adaptabilidad profesional, los efectos positivos de la capacidad de adaptación pueden también ser comprendidos a través de la teoría del establecimiento de objetivos (Locke & Latham, 2006), que afirma que la motivación viene del deseo y la intención de alcanzar una meta. Si bien la adaptabilidad profesional en sí misma puede no implicar explícitamente el establecimiento de objetivos, la dimensión de preocupación por la carrera implica la construcción de una visión de carrera personal o de alternativas de carrera o aspiraciones de carrera, que representan el estado futuro deseado. Así, esta es una forma de un objetivo profesional personalmente atractivo y significativo para el individuo, y de acuerdo con la teoría del establecimiento de objetivos, motiva a los individuos a lograr el resultado deseado. Klehe y sus colegas (2012) también sugieren que el atractivo personal y el significado de las alternativas de carrera formuladas pueden fortalecer la autodeterminación de uno mismo para lograr el futuro deseado a pesar de los desafíos y obstáculos. Además, explican que la creencia en la responsabilidad personal y la capacidad de uno mismo para configurar su futuro les permite enfrentar los estresores económicos con optimismo y supone una fuerte motivación para lograr su visión y aspiración. Este esfuerzo está en línea con la conceptualización de la dimensión de control y confianza de la adaptabilidad profesional.

Objetivos de Investigación

A pesar de la creciente atención a la adaptabilidad profesional como un elemento importante para el éxito profesional, los académicos creen que la empleabilidad seguirá siendo importante ya que proporciona a las personas competencias para obtener y mantener un empleo de preferencia (De Cuyper, Piccoli, Fontinha, & De Witte, 2018). Sin embargo, la mayoría de los estudios recientes sobre el éxito profesional aún tienen que examinar de forma conjunta la relevancia y los posibles efectos de la adaptabilidad profesional y la empleabilidad. Es decir, el impacto de los dos constructos en presencia uno del otro permanece empíricamente todavía poco claro. Teniendo en cuenta que la

adaptabilidad profesional surgió en respuesta al cambiante contexto de desarrollo laboral y profesional en entornos de trabajo turbulentos, es plausible que la adaptabilidad profesional ejerza más influencia o reemplace el rol de la empleabilidad en el éxito profesional. Por lo tanto, la primera pregunta que esta investigación quisiera responder es: (Q1) “¿Cuál es el grado de relevancia de la empleabilidad, más allá de la creciente atención a la adaptabilidad profesional?” Además, dado que tanto la empleabilidad como la adaptabilidad profesional son constructos psicosociales relacionados que comparten algunas similitudes conceptuales, puede haber posibilidades de que los puntos en común entre las dos construcciones predigan el éxito de la carrera mejor de lo que lo hará cada uno de los constructos por sí solo o que una de las dos construcciones pueda actuar como un subconjunto del otro. Por lo tanto, la segunda pregunta que esta investigación desea responder es: (Q2) “¿Cuál es el grado de comunalidad y de solapamiento conceptual entre la empleabilidad y la adaptabilidad profesional?" Las preguntas Q1 y Q2 se examinan en el Estudio 1, que lleva el objetivo general de comprender la relevancia de la empleabilidad para el éxito subjetivo de la carrera en medio de la creciente atención a la adaptabilidad profesional.

Reconociendo que la inseguridad laboral continuará intensificándose debido a las fluctuaciones económicas y el avance tecnológico (Chung & Mau, 2014; De Witte, 2005), los académicos creen que la empleabilidad seguirá siendo importante (De Cuyper et al., 2018), ya que también puede amortiguar los impactos negativos de la inseguridad laboral sobre la salud y el bienestar (Briscoe, Henagan, Burton, & Murphy, 2012; De Cuyper, Notelaers, & De Witte, 2009; Silla et al., 2009). Sin embargo, los hallazgos sobre el rol de la empleabilidad (i.e. empleabilidad percibida) y la inseguridad laboral en resultados como la satisfacción con la vida y el bienestar son inconsistentes. Por ejemplo, hay estudios que sugieren que la inseguridad laboral actúa como mediador entre la empleabilidad y otros resultados (De Cuyper, Bernhard-Oettel, Berntson, De Witte, & Alarco, 2008) y otros estudios que sugieren que la empleabilidad percibida actúa como moderador (Silla et al., 2009). Teniendo en cuenta que los factores macro como la inestabilidad económica y las condiciones del mercado laboral pueden influir en la inseguridad laboral (Anderson &

Pontusson, 2007; De Weerdt et al., 2004) y en la percepción de empleabilidad (Lübke and Erlinghagen, 2014), el impacto de las condiciones laborales podría explicar plausiblemente los diferentes resultados obtenidos hasta ahora. En vista de esto, el Estudio 2 se propone aclarar el rol de la empleabilidad y la seguridad laboral respecto al éxito subjetivo de la carrera en diferentes condiciones laborales, por lo que aborda el tercer objetivo de investigación: (Q3) “¿Qué modelo (mediación o moderación) es más relevante para describir el rol de la empleabilidad y la inseguridad laboral en relación con el éxito de la carrera en el contexto actual del mercado laboral?”

Además de poder ayudar a las personas a mantener y lograr el éxito profesional en el mundo laboral contemporáneo, puede ser beneficioso ayudar a las personas a mantener o mejorar el desempeño cuando se encuentran en situaciones de intensificación de la inseguridad laboral. Aunque la literatura indica que la inseguridad laboral es principalmente un factor estresante que impide el desempeño (e.g., Cheng & Chan, 2008; Gilboa, Shirom, Fried, & Cooper, 2008), también hay una minoría de estudios que demuestran lo contrario. Aunque una minoría, en estos estudios se demostró que la inseguridad laboral, bajo ciertas circunstancias, puede crear un motivo para asegurar el puesto de trabajo que conduce a un rendimiento mejorado (e.g., Probst, Stewart, Gruys, & Tierney, 2007) y a un aumento en las conductas extra-rol (Fischer et al., 2005; Staufenbiel & König, 2010). Por ejemplo, Feather y Rauter (2004) encontraron empleados que se enfrentaron a la inseguridad laboral para ir más allá de lo que se les exige en el trabajo (i.e., comportamiento extra-rol) en situaciones en las que se produjeron algunos beneficios transaccionales (como sobrevivir al despido). Por lo tanto, a la luz de la motivación por la preservación del empleo (Shoss, 2017), que sugiere que la inseguridad laboral motiva a las personas a actuar de la manera que ellos creen que podría reducir la posibilidad de pérdida de empleo, el Estudio 3 se propone descubrir cuándo muestran los empleados una respuesta de comportamiento a la inseguridad laboral en la forma de mejorar su rendimiento en el trabajo. El estudio 3 abordará la pregunta de investigación de (Q4) "¿Cuándo la inseguridad laboral promueve el rendimiento?"

Resultados

El objetivo general de esta investigación es ayudar a las personas a mantener y lograr el éxito profesional en un entorno laboral turbulento. Se logra a través de tres estudios y las siguientes secciones detallan los hallazgos de cada estudio.

Estudio 1

A través de una muestra compuesta por 160 graduados mexicanos de varias universidades privadas y públicas en la Ciudad de México, el Estudio 1 examinó la importancia relativa de la empleabilidad y de la adaptabilidad profesional de carrera al predecir dos indicadores de éxito profesional subjetivos - la satisfacción laboral y el desempeño laboral percibido, utilizando análisis de pesos relativos y análisis de comunalidad. Uno de los resultados más notables fue que la adaptabilidad profesional predice la satisfacción laboral en ausencia de la empleabilidad pero no en presencia de las variable empleabilidad. Los resultados también revelaron que la empleabilidad supone la principal contribución a la satisfacción en el trabajo, seguida de la varianza compartida entre la empleabilidad y la adaptabilidad profesional. En este escenario, los recursos de adaptabilidad profesional parecían ser casi un subconjunto de recursos de la empleabilidad ya que su contribución única solo representaba el .51% de la varianza total explicada en la satisfacción laboral. Por otro lado, los resultados indicaron que la adaptabilidad profesional contribuyó a la predicción del desempeño laboral dos veces más que la empleabilidad. Sin embargo, la suma de la contribución única de la adaptabilidad profesional y de la empleabilidad es solo la mitad de la contribución hecha por los recursos comunes. En este escenario, la mayoría de los recursos de adaptación profesional que predijeron el desempeño percibido son prácticamente los mismos que los recursos de empleabilidad. Esto sugiere que cualquiera de los conceptos por sí solo puede ser suficiente para predecir el desempeño, aunque la adaptabilidad profesional puede ser un predictor ligeramente mejor del desempeño.

En resumen, el Estudio 1 abordó la pregunta Q1 al demostrar que la empleabilidad sigue siendo un concepto relevante en el mercado laboral actual a pesar de la creciente atención en la adaptabilidad profesional, y abordó la pregunta Q2 al demostrar que la empleabilidad y la adaptabilidad profesional comparten una alta comunalidad al predecir el éxito subjetivo de la carrera. El estudio 1 demuestra además que la empleabilidad podría tener un rol más importante porque su función predictiva es más confiable que la adaptabilidad profesional. También sugiere que la presencia de la empleabilidad podría atenuar de manera plausible el rol de la adaptabilidad profesional sobre el éxito subjetivo de la carrera y viceversa.

Estudio 2

La situación del mercado laboral español ofreció la oportunidad de examinar los modelos en competencia porque la crisis económica mundial en el año 2008 tuvo un gran impacto negativo en el mercado laboral español durante siguiéndolos años siguientes. Por lo tanto, a través de dos muestras transversales extraídas de la población española en el año 2008 (condición 'normal' del mercado de trabajo) y 2011 (condición 'duras' del mercado de trabajo), el Estudio 2 puso a prueba los dos modelos en competencia: el modelo de mediación o moderación en dos condiciones laborales diferentes. En concreto, el modelo de mediación describe el rol de la empleabilidad percibida como un antecedente del bienestar psicológico y la satisfacción laboral (i.e., éxito subjetivo de la carrera) y la inseguridad laboral como mediador. El modelo de moderación, por otro lado, describe la empleabilidad percibida como un moderador entre la inseguridad laboral y los dos indicadores de éxito subjetivo de la carrera.

Los resultados del estudio 2 demostraron que los datos respaldaban el modelo de mediación como lo indica la literatura, pero solo en condiciones normales (2008). La principal razón por la que el modelo de mediación no fue significativo en condiciones laborales duro (2011) fue que la empleabilidad percibida no predecía la inseguridad laboral.

Este fenómeno podría atribuirse a la magnitud de la destrucción de empleos, la escasez de empleos y las malas perspectivas de empleo provocadas por la crisis económica y las emisiones estructurales existentes en el mercado laboral española. Como resultado de la escasez en el mercado laboral y las perspectivas de empleo deficientes, las personas perciben su capacidad para obtener un nuevo trabajo o para mantener su trabajo actual para estar más allá de la influencia de su empleabilidad. En otras palabras, en momentos en que el mercado laboral es restringido, la valoración positiva de la empleabilidad no influye en la experiencia de inseguridad laboral porque las condiciones del mercado laboral, como la oferta laboral y el mandato, ejercen una influencia más fuerte.

Los resultados del Estudio 2 también demostraron que los datos respaldaban el modelo de moderación, como lo indica la literatura. Sin embargo, a diferencia del modelo de mediación, el modelo de moderación solo se admitió en condiciones duro (2011). La razón principal por la que el modelo de moderación no fue significativo en condiciones normales (2008) fue que la interacción no fue significativa. El modelo de moderación fue significativo solo en condiciones laborales severas (2011) se puede entender a través de la teoría de la atribución (Weiner, 1986). Debido a la magnitud de la destrucción de empleos, la escasez de empleos y las malas perspectivas de empleo en 2011, las personas pueden tender a hacer atribuciones externas para explicar su situación, y la experiencia de inseguridad laboral como obtener o mantener un trabajo está más allá de la influencia de la capacidad de los demás. En tal situación, la autoevaluación positiva de los recursos propios, es decir, la empleabilidad percibida puede ayudar a las personas a preservar su autoestima y mejorar la anticipación de una identidad futura en la recuperación del mercado (Green, 2011). En este sentido, la empleabilidad amortigua el impacto de la inseguridad laboral en el éxito subjetivo de la carrera y funciona como un mecanismo de protección en condiciones laborales desfavorables.

En suma, estudio 2 abordó la pregunta Q3 al demostrar que el modelo de mediación es más relevante para predecir el bienestar psicológico y la satisfacción con la vida en condiciones laborales ‘normales’, mientras que el modelo de moderación es más relevante

en condiciones laborales muy restrictivas. Es decir; el modelo de moderación es más relevante para describir el rol de la empleabilidad y la inseguridad laboral en el contexto actual del mercado laboral de escasez de empleo. En otras palabras, durante condiciones duras, la empleabilidad no debe considerarse un antecedente de la inseguridad y el bienestar, sino un recurso para hacer frente a los efectos de la inseguridad laboral.

Estudio 3

A través de una muestra que comprende 103 empleados y cinco supervisores de un departamento de mantenimiento técnico de una empresa holandesa de transporte público, el Estudio 3 examinó cuándo los empleados muestran una respuesta de comportamiento a la inseguridad laboral de incremento de su desempeño general, teniendo en cuenta la motivación intrínseca y la percepción de justicia distributiva como moderadores. Los resultados indicaron que la interacción de la motivación intrínseca con la inseguridad laboral, y la interacción de la justicia distributiva percibida con la inseguridad laboral se relacionaron significativamente con el desempeño. Específicamente, los análisis demostraron que la inseguridad laboral estaba relacionada positivamente con el desempeño para i) los empleados con baja motivación intrínseca y ii) para los empleados que perciben una baja justicia distributiva en la organización. Los resultados se replicaron cuando el desempeño general fue calificado por el supervisor y cuando se evaluó mediante los auto informes de desempeño contextual de los empleados (i.e., conductas de ciudadanía organizacional). En otras palabras, los resultados indicaron que los empleados demuestran un desempeño general más alto (calificado por el supervisor) en respuesta a la inseguridad laboral cuando anteriormente no tenían una motivación intrínseca para desempeñarse de la mejor manera posible (i.e., una baja motivación intrínseca) y cuando sienten que no pueden confiar en que la organización recompense el desempeño de manera justa (i.e., la percepción de justicia distributiva es baja). Este último resultado contradecía la hipótesis del estudio 3: Los resultados indicaron que es más probable que los empleados recurran a un afrontamiento

activo cuando la justicia distributiva percibida es baja en lugar de alta. Esto podría deberse a que las decisiones de despido justas tomarían en cuenta los registros de desempeño pasados y sería menos probable que se vean influenciadas únicamente por el desempeño actual o por las tácticas de "gestión de impresiones".

En suma, el estudio 3 abordó la pregunta Q4 al demostrar que los empleados pueden intentar asegurar su puesto de trabajo al aumentar su desempeño cuando se dan cuenta de que su desempeño normal o la falta de imparcialidad organizacional pueden ponerlos en un gran riesgo de perder su trabajo. Aunque el resultado reflejó una relación positiva entre la inseguridad laboral y el desempeño en el trabajo, el Estudio 3, sin embargo, no indicó claramente que la inseguridad laboral podría motivar el desempeño cuando el desempeño es fundamental para asegurar el trabajo. En su lugar, el Estudio 3 parece haber descubierto condiciones que pueden facilitar las tácticas de "gestión de impresiones" por parte de los empleados.

Implicaciones y Conclusiones

En general, esta investigación aportó evidencias que indican que el concepto de empleabilidad sigue siendo relevante a pesar de la creciente importancia de la adaptabilidad profesional, y que su rol no está siendo reemplazado por esa segunda variable. También aporta evidencia acerca de que la presencia de la empleabilidad puede atenuar de manera plausible el efecto de la adaptabilidad profesional y que su rol podría ser potencialmente más confiable y consistente que el de la adaptabilidad profesional. Al demostrar empíricamente los elementos comunes compartidos, esta investigación destaca la oportunidad de refinar y fusionar los dos conceptos en uno solo más parsimonioso, que puede ser más relevante para la población laboral contemporánea, es decir, un concepto que considera la necesidad de que los individuos hagan frente de manera proactiva a los cambios generalizados, y sean atractivos y relevantes en el mercado laboral. La fusión de constructos propuesta podría ser beneficiosa tanto para la investigación como para la

práctica porque la empleabilidad psicosocial actualmente carece de una escala de medición unificada, y puede beneficiarse de la ya establecida Escala de adaptabilidad profesional (CAAS) utilizada para medir la adaptabilidad. Esta propuesta de fusión se alinea con la sugerencia de Lo Presti y Pluviano (2016) para operacionalizar la empleabilidad como la interacción de la identidad profesional o la autogestión, el desarrollo profesional y el monitoreo del ambiente. Como la mayoría de los programas de empleabilidad tienden a basarse en la creación de recursos de capital humano (International Monetary Fund, The World Bank, ILO & OECD, 2016; Kluve, 2014), la fusión con la empleabilidad podría significar que los programas de empleabilidad pueden ser potencialmente más holísticos porque el desarrollo de la adaptabilidad profesional como parte de la empleabilidad implica el desarrollo de recursos psicológicos y de identidad de la carrera (Hirschi, 2012). Los beneficios son múltiples: mejora la empleabilidad y la adaptabilidad profesional al mismo tiempo, y la efectividad de costes /tiempo para los profesionales de la carrera y los participantes es mayor.

Después de establecer la relevancia de la empleabilidad en el contexto actual del mercado laboral, esta investigación clarifica el rol de la empleabilidad (y la inseguridad laboral) en condiciones laborales diferentes. Específicamente, cuando existe un cierto grado de desarrollo económico y disponibilidad de empleo, la empleabilidad es un recurso personal que actúa como un antecedente del éxito subjetivo de la carrera, y su efecto se produce a través de niveles de inseguridad laboral que se derivan, al menos en parte, de estos recursos personales. Por otro lado, en tiempos de desarrollo económico lento, escasez de empleos y volatilidad en el mercado laboral, la empleabilidad no debe considerarse un antecedente, sino un recurso para hacer frente a los efectos de la inseguridad laboral. Es decir, esta investigación también proporciona evidencia sobre el rol protector de la empleabilidad en el bienestar y la satisfacción de la vida. Los roles cambiantes de la empleabilidad en diferentes condiciones laborales sugieren que los investigadores deben ser más sensibles a los factores contextuales a partir de los cuales se extraen los datos para aplicar el modelo apropiado (mediación o moderación) para ser

precisos y eficaces en los resultados del estudio. Por lo tanto, se recomienda una sección dedicada a aclarar los factores contextuales para que los investigadores y profesionales puedan recibir apoyo para hacer las inferencias y aplicaciones adecuadas. Dicha información es importante porque los estudios han establecido cómo las condiciones económicas y/o laborales pueden influir en la empleabilidad (especialmente la percepción de empleo) y la inseguridad laboral (Berglund & Wallinder, 2015; Berntson et al., 2006; McQuaid & Lindsay, 2005; Vanhercke et al., 2014). Además, teniendo en cuenta que la incertidumbre, la turbulencia y la volatilidad del mercado laboral serán comunes en el futuro, este estudio sugiere ventajas en el desarrollo de la empleabilidad de una persona, tanto en condiciones favorables como desfavorable del mercado laboral. También se recomienda a las organizaciones que continúen invirtiendo en el desarrollo de la empleabilidad de sus empleados cuando las condiciones laborales se hacen más estrictas, ya que tanto las organizaciones como los empleados pueden beneficiarse de los diferentes roles de empleabilidad cuando las condiciones del mercado laboral (tanto internas como externas) o factores de carácter macro se deterioran. Esta investigación refuerza la evidencia existente que enfatiza la importancia de la empleabilidad (McQuaid & Lindsay, 2005).

En el caso de que las condiciones del mercado laboral (tanto internas como externas) se deterioren y aumente la experiencia de inseguridad laboral, se recomienda a las organizaciones aumentar la visibilidad de una mayor justicia organizacional. Asegurar a los empleados que la organización seguirá siendo justa en la distribución de recompensas puede darles a los empleados más certeza al juzgar la posibilidad de conservar su trabajo actual, lo que, a su vez, puede impedir la gestión de impresiones en forma de un mayor desempeño sólo por aparentar mayor capacidad y de forma puntual. La presente investigación no solo aporta pruebas de que una baja percepción de la justicia distributiva puede facilitar tales estrategias de gestión de impresiones relacionadas con el desempeño, sino que también ha aportado evidencias de que los empleados que anteriormente no tenían una motivación intrínseca para desempeñarse tienen muchas probabilidades de intentar preservar sus trabajos mediante tácticas de gestión de impresiones relacionadas

con el rendimiento (Bolino, 1999, Huang et al., 2013). Por lo tanto, se recomienda a las organizaciones que estén al tanto de los esfuerzos de preservación de empleos al tomar decisiones sobre recursos humanos

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ANNEXES

Annex I: Scale Items Used in This Research (Study 1, 2, and 3)

Scale: Career Adapt-Ability Scale [Original English Version]

Sub-Scale: Concern

1. Thinking about what my future will be like
2. Realizing that today's choices shape my future
3. Preparing for the future
4. Becoming aware of the educational and vocational choices that I must make
5. Planning how to achieve my goals
6. Concerned about my career

Sub-Scale: Control

1. Keeping upbeat
2. Making decisions by myself
3. Taking responsibility for my actions
4. Sticking up for my beliefs
5. Counting on myself
6. Doing what's right for me

Sub-Scale: Curiosity

1. Exploring my surroundings
2. Looking for opportunities to grow as a person
3. Investigating options before making a choice
4. Observing different ways of doing things
5. Probing deeply into questions I have
6. Becoming curious about new opportunities

Sub-Scale: Confidence

1. Performing tasks efficiently
2. Taking care to do things well
3. Learning new skills
4. Working up to my ability
5. Overcoming obstacles
6. Solving problem

Scale: Proactive personality

1. I excel at identifying opportunities
2. If I see something I don't like, I fix it
3. No matter what the odds, if I believe in something I will make it happen
4. I am always looking for better ways to do things
5. If I believe in an idea, no obstacle will prevent me from making it happen

Scale: Career Identity

1. I strongly identify with my chosen line of work/career field.
2. I have a clear idea about the place where I want to address my professional career.
3. I do whatever I can in order to develop the professional career that I want to achieve
4. I am highly motivated to develop my desired professional career.

Scale: Perceived Employability

1. In the current market situation, it is possible for me to work in a company of my preference
2. In the current labor market situation, it is possible to find the type of work for which I have prepared or have experience
3. In the current situation, I find it possible to find a job with the kind of dedication I prefer

Scale: Job Insecurity (De Witte, 2000)

1. There are possibilities that I will lose my job soon
2. I feel insecure about the future of my job
3. I think I might lose my job in the near future

Scale: Job Insecurity (Hellgren, Sverke, & Isaksson, 1999)

1. I am worried about having to leave my job before I would like to
2. There is a risk that I will have to leave my present job in the year to come
3. I feel uneasy about losing my job in the near future

Scale: Self-Rated Job Performance

1. I achieved the objectives and goals that I had to fulfill in a timely manner
2. I actively participate in decision making related to my work
3. I took the initiative to carry out my work
4. I assumed the responsibilities assigned to me
5. I worked without making mistakes

Scale: Job Satisfaction

1. I am not happy with my job
2. I am often bored with my job
3. Most days I am enthusiastic about my work
4. I find enjoyment in my work

Scale: Life Satisfaction

1. On a scale of 1 (not satisfied) to 10 (very satisfied), how satisfied do you currently feel about your life in general?

Scale: Psychological Well-being

1. In the last weeks, I have not been able to concentrate on what I’m doing
2. In the last weeks, I have not been able to enjoy my normal day-to -day activities
3. In the last weeks, I feel constantly under strain
4. In the last weeks, I have been feeling unhappy and depressed

Scale: Supervisor-Rated Task and Contextual Performance

1. The employee performs well at his task
2. The employee is willing to support peers
3. The employee puts effort into the organization

Scale: Organizational Citizenship Behavior – Individual (OCB-I)

1. Help others who have been absent
2. Willingly give your time to help others who have work-related problems
3. Adjust your work schedule to accommodate other employees' requests for time-off
4. Go out of the way to make newer employees feel welcome in the work group
5. Show genuine concern and courtesy toward coworkers, even under the most trying business or personal situations
6. Give up time to help others who have work or non-work problems
7. Assist others with their duties
8. Share personal property with others to help their work

Scale: Organizational Citizenship Behavior – Organizational (OCB-O)

1. Attend functions that are not required but that help the organizational image
2. Keep up with developments in the organization
3. Defend the organization when other employees criticize it
4. Show pride when representing the organization in public
5. Offer ideas to improve the functioning of the organization
6. Express loyalty toward the organization
7. Take action to protect the organization from potential problems
8. Demonstrate concern about the image of the organization

Scale: Intrinsic Motivation

1. I feel a sense of personal satisfaction when I do this job well
2. My opinion of myself goes down when I do this job badly
3. I take pride in doing my job as well as I can
4. I feel unhappy when my work is not up to my usual standard
5. I like to look back on the day's work with a sense of a job well done
6. I try to think of ways of doing my job effectively.

Scale: Perceived Distributive Justice

1. The reward I receive from my company reflects the efforts I put into my work
2. The rewards I receive from my company is appropriate for the work I have completed
3. The rewards I receive from my company reflect what I have contributed to the organization

Scale: Perceived Organizational Support

1. The organization cares about my well-being
2. The organization strongly considers my goals and values
3. The organization takes pride in my accomplishments
4. The organization values my contribution to its well-being
5. The organization is willing to help me when I need a special favor
6. The organization show little concern for me (Reverse coded)
7. The organization ignores complaints from me (Reverse coded)

Annex II: Spanish Translation of the Career Adapt-Ability Scale

Sub-Scale: Implicación

1. Pensar sobre cómo será mi futuro.
2. Darse cuenta que las decisiones de hoy influyen en mi futuro.
3. Prepararme para el futuro.
4. Ser consciente de las elecciones educativas y vocacionales que debo tomar.
5. Planificar cómo lograr mis objetivos / metas.
6. Preocuparme por mi carrera.

Sub-Scale: Control

1. Mantenerme optimista.
2. Tomar decisiones por mí mismo.
3. Responsabilizarme de mis acciones.
4. Defender mis creencias (convicciones).
5. Confiar en mí mismo.
6. Hacer lo que creo que está bien.

Sub-Scale: Curiosidad

1. Explorar mi entorno.
2. Buscar oportunidades para crecer como persona.
3. Explorar opciones antes de tomar una decisión.
4. Considerar diferentes maneras de hacer las cosas.
5. Examinar profundamente los interrogantes que tengo.
6. Tener curiosidad sobre nuevas oportunidades.

Sub-Scale: Confidence

1. Realizar las tareas de forma eficiente.
2. Tener cuidado de hacer las cosas bien.
3. Aprender nuevas habilidades.
4. Desarrollar al máximo mis capacidades.
5. Superar obstáculos.
6. Resolver problemas.