

Running head: JOB SECURITY ON WELL-BEING AND ENGAGEMENT

MASTERS' THESIS

The effects of Job Security and Regulatory Focus on Well-Being and Engagement;
with Exploratory Analyses of Generational Differences

Anique A. van Lent

3754316

Universiteit Utrecht

Masters Arbeids- en organisatiepsychologie

Thesis Supervisor: Mevr. Dr. V. Brenninkmeijer

Second Supervisor: Mevr. Dr. Marieke den Ouden

18 April 2013

Abstract

Job security is considered a key factor to organizational success. This study further analyzes this relationship by investigating employees' job security in relation to their well-being and engagement at work. The study was conducted among 125 employees working at a prestigious international design firm. Differences were established between subjective (perceived) and objective (formal) job security. Results indicated that job security related significantly to elements of both well-being and engagement, however well-being results were contradictory to previous literature. In addition, regulatory focus was assessed as a moderator. The theory that high prevention focused individuals benefit from job security in terms of well-being and engagement was not supported. High promotion focused individuals did however benefit from job security in terms of their absorption. Exploratory analyses showed a marked difference in the attitudes and behaviors towards work of employees from different generations with differing regulatory foci. Reasons for these relationships as well as suggestions for future research are included. These findings may have implications for organizational retention strategies for employees of different generations with differing regulatory foci.

Traditionally employment security is considered one of the key contributors to organizational success. Pfeffer describes employment security as one of his seven universal organizational “best practices” which should be adopted in any organization to optimize outputs and gain a competitive advantage through workers regardless of industry and context (Pfeffer, 1998; Marchington and Grugulis, 2000; Boselie, 2010;). Studies indicate that poor job security often leads to poor employee health. The threat of redundancy and re-engineering within organizations increases both mental and physical health issues for employees (Bardasi and Francesoni, 2004), which in turn have an adverse effect on organizational performance.

Worldwide, the concern for employment security has recently increased due a change in the nature of work and the wider market (Silla et al., 2009). The last decade has seen fundamental changes in the labor market such as a growth in temporary employment, globalization, new technologies, and more recently a vast amount of restructuring and downsizing. In comparison to the 60s and 70s, workers today are increasingly being confronted with “unstable and unpredictable employment conditions”, which are likely to cause job insecurity (Korner et al., 2012). The stress of these changes is further magnified by an increased focus on competition and profit margins by organizations (Stander and Rothmann, 2010). Salladavre, Hlaimi, and Wolff (2011) found these changes in the economic environment contributed to a significant deterioration of the perceived employment security in European workers in the 1990’s. The higher risk of job loss puts more emphasis on maintaining security (Fatimah et. al., 2012).

The decrease in employee health related to poor job security also has repercussions in the wider community. From a broader perspective, Fatimah and colleagues (2012) state, “[market] instability of the economy may have an effect of the health and well-being of the society”. Namely, job insecurity was found to correlate with high levels of drug and alcohol abuse as well as a general decrease in physical health. Increasing poor well-being is likely to put stress on the medical and welfare systems leaving individuals with insufficient care. Governments could be expected to invest more in health and well-being related welfare, which in times of financial crisis and economic instability may be increasingly difficult to deliver. Job insecurity and its negative effects on health and well-being cause not only problems for individuals and organizations, but also for governments and hence society as a whole.

The current study aims to further analyze this relationship of employees' job security in relation to their well-being and engagement at work. In the past, differing results have been found in terms of employee well-being and engagement based on subjective (perceived) job security and objective security (defined by formal contract term) (Perrewe and Zellars, 1999; Spector, 1999; Origo and Pagani, 2008; Van Vuuren et al., 2010). As such, this study will extend the research conducted by Origo and Pagani (2008) and further investigate objective and subjective job security in relation to employee well-being and work engagement.

Furthermore, differing regulatory foci may influence the effect of job security on well-being and engagement. Regulatory focus theory refers to two separate and independent self-regulatory orientations, prevention and promotion focus. Regulatory focus theory is largely viewed in relation to decision-making and goal attainment processes. Promotion focus is motivational concern for advancement growth and accomplishment, and prevention focus centers on security, safety, and responsibility (Higgins, 1997). Brocker and Higgins (2001) suggest that regulatory focus of individuals influences the nature and magnitude of emotional experiences. As the definition suggests, prevention focused individuals tend to have a stronger need for security than promotion focused individuals; as such, they may be more affected emotionally when security is lacking. There has been limited specific research into prevention focused individuals and their need for job security explicitly. This study investigates whether job security impacts higher prevention focused individuals more strongly. As such, the impact of regulatory focus as a moderator is also assessed.

Results from this study could be used to determine to what extent fixed term contracts and enhanced job security benefit workers and organizations; and to further the understanding of the importance of perceived and formal employment security on organizational objectives. In addition, it aims to create a more concrete link between regulatory focus and job security.

Job Security

Firstly, job security must be defined. De Witte (1999) defines job insecurity as relating to "people at work who fear they might lose their jobs and become unemployed" (De Witte, 1999, p. 156). That is, an overall perception and concern about job continuation and potential involuntary job loss (De Witte, 1999; Silla et al., 2009). De Witte (1999) notes that the actual continuation of the specific content of the job (position, profile, income, etc.) is not part of the definition of job insecurity. The essence of the definition is the aspect of

'becoming unemployed'. This particular study adopts this definition, and the term job security refers to security within a specific organization.

The importance of job security is present in a variety of managerial methods and theories. Employment security is listed as one of Pfeffer's seven key components of his 1994 "Best Practice Approach", which has been found to lead to superior organizational performance (Pfeffer, 1998; also see in: Marchington, and Grugulis, 2000; Nankervis et al., 2005; Davidson et al., 2006; Boselie, 2010). Moreover, job *in*security has been linked to poor job performance (Salladavre et al., 2011; Fatimah et al., 2012). The consequences of job insecurity are likely see organizations suffer financially (Stander and Rothmann, 2010). This is due not only to decreased worker productivity, but also increased absenteeism, increased turnover, and decreased levels of commitment. Insecure workers have been shown to put in less effort and show higher levels of work deviance (Fatimah et al. 2012). Particularly, they are less productive, more likely to defy changes, and more likely to quit when compared to those who have high job security. The negative impact of job insecurity is detrimental for organizations for planning purposes, productivity and profits (Stander and Rothmann, 2010).

Societal concerns about job security are reflected in laws and regulations. For example, in many industries in the Netherlands an individual can receive three fixed-term contracts only, subsequent contracts must be for an indefinite term (werk.nl). In a recent study by Salladavre et al. (2011), workers in the Netherlands were generally found to relatively undervalue job security, and perceived job insecurity was also found to be relatively low (compared to other European nations). This reduced emphasis on job security by individuals may be due to the laws the Dutch government has implemented to strengthen job security, reducing the need for Dutch workers to worry about job security.

Traditionally job security has been measured objectively, through the evaluation of formal employment contracts; an employee with a six-month contract would have a lower job security compared to someone with an indefinite contract (De Cuyper and De Witte, 2005). More recently however, job security has been measured from a subjective standpoint, by asking employees how they perceive their own security (Origo and Pagani, 2008). Perceived job security is often found to reflect objective conditions, that is, the perceived probability and severity of employment loss have different consequences depending on formal employment status. Nevertheless, there is evidence that subjective experience of job insecurity is possible in contexts where no objective threat exists (Mauno et al., 2005). Due to its subjective nature, perceived job security tends to bond more naturally with other

subjective measures such as engagement and well-being (Mauno et al., 2005; van Vuuren et al., 2010). De Cuyper and colleagues (2008) state, “subjective indicators may more accurately capture the interplay between contextual and individual factors [when investigating well-being]”. Perrewe and Zellars (1999) indicate that an individual's interpretation of the environment is crucial in the stress process. Therefore, the key form of measurement should be personal situational appraisals. As previously mentioned, objective aspects may influence subjective responses. Mauno and colleagues (2005) suggest it is possible to mismatch objective and subjective interpretations. This may confuse results and reduce clarity of the subjective reactions (well-being and engagement) to the subjective stressor (job security). Thus, for the current study, perceived job security has been selected as the dominant independent variable, with formal job security as a control variable.

Job Security and Well-Being

Job security directly relates to well-being (De Witte, 1999; Silla et al., 2009, Stander and Rothmann, 2010, Fatimah et al., 2012). High levels of well-being are associated with the mental state of being happy, healthy, and valued. Lauber and Bowen (2010) underline that work provides not only financial security, but also meaning, identity, and a means to social participation (Bosman et al., 2005; Lauber and Bowen, 2010). This in turn has beneficial effects on physical and mental well-being in the long term. De Cuyper describes job insecurity as a “severe breach of the psychological contract” between the employee and the employer (De Cuyper, et al., 2008, p. 490). The threat of losing benefits caused by job insecurity increases psychological stress experienced by workers, which in turn affects their general well-being negatively (De Cuyper et al., 2008; Silla et al., 2009; Stander and Rothmann, 2010; Fatimah et al., 2012). Specifically, people in insecure jobs report higher cases of poor physical health such as fatigue, insomnia, bodily pains, depression, and anxiety.

Through analyses of past research, it is evident that job security has a distinct effect on employee well-being. Namely, as security deteriorates, so does well-being. This study takes into account the aforementioned differences in objective and subjective job security on the relationship between security and well-being by assessing the relationship with perceived job security while controlling for formal job security. The following hypothesis is formulated:

Hypothesis 1a (H1a): After controlling for formal job security (FJS), perceived job security (PJS) will yield a positive relationship with well-being.

Job Security and Engagement

Engagement belongs to positive organizational psychology, focusing on happiness, human strengths and optimal functioning (Rothmann and Rothmann, 2012). Engaged workers are described as energetic, positive, fulfilled, and work-orientated who see themselves as able to deal completely with the demands of their jobs (Rothmann and Rothmann, 2010; Stander and Rothman, 2010). Organizations today require employees' emotional and cognitive commitment to their company, work, co-workers, and customers. This has resulted in an increased emphasis on engagement and positive organizational psychology in general.

Engagement is characterized by three components: vigor, absorption, and dedication. Vigor is the physical aspect of engagement, relating to high energy and mental resilience, willingness to invest effort, not easily becoming fatigued and high levels of persistence even in the face of difficulties (Stander and Rothmann, 2010). Concentrating fully on work, a pleasant state of total immersion, and "forgetting about everything else" characterize the cognitive aspect, absorption. Dedication, the emotional side, relates to a strong involvement in work, characterized by enthusiasm and pride, feeling both inspired and challenged by one's work.

The positive effects of engagement are beneficial for both individuals and organizations. Engaged employees are often more satisfied than those showing low levels of engagement (Rothmann and Rothmann, 2010). Engaged employees return lower turnover rates and are more productive, motivated and committed. High levels of engagement fuel effort and dedication to quality of work.

Engagement has been found to relate to contract type (higher levels for permanent staff compared to temporaries) and, negativity relate to job insecurity (De Cuyper and De Witte, 2005, De Cuyper et al., 2008; Stander and Rothmann, 2010). Employees with short contract terms, and/or high levels of job insecurity, are likely to have lower levels of engagement than those with permanent jobs and/or those who feel secure. The exact demarcation of the aforementioned dimensions of engagement is yet to be fully determined. Mauno et al. (2007) found that each individual aspect of engagement (absorption, vigor, and dedication) correlates negatively with job insecurity. Dedication has the strongest relationship ($r=-0.17$) followed by vigor ($r=-0.12$), and absorption ($r=-0.10$). It has been suggested that dedication and vigor should be considered the 'core' components of motivational work engagement, whereas absorption is more related to 'flow'. This may explain why absorption relates the least to job security (see Mauno et al., 2007). Due to empirical evidence

deficiencies in the underlying relationship between engagement and job security, this study aims to further the understanding by investigating the relationships of job security and engagement as a whole, including its three subcomponents. By taking into account the aforementioned discrepancies between objective and subjective employment security, using only the subjective aspect of job security, the following hypothesis has been formulated:

Hypothesis 2a (H2a): After controlling for formal job security (FJS), perceived job security (PJS) will yield a positive relationship with engagement and its subcomponents.

Job Security and Regulatory Focus

Regulatory focus theory encompasses two motivational regulation modes, prevention and promotion focus, engaged during goal attainment and decision-making (Higgins, 1997). Regulatory focus is based on three main elements; “(1) the *need* that people are seeking to satisfy, (2) the *nature* of the goal or standard that people are trying to achieve or match, and (3) the psychological situations that *matter* to people” (Brockner and Higgins, 2001, pp.37-38). Higgins describes regulatory focus theory as having two components: Promotion focus and Prevention focus. Promotion focus is “concerned with advancement growth and accomplishment”, whereas prevention focus is related to “security, safety and responsibility” (Crowe and Higgins, 1997, p. 119). Promotion focused individuals are concerned with gains and non-gains, concentrate on positive outcomes and employ strategies of eagerness, risk taking and tackling obstacles. Prevention focused individuals focus on non-losses and losses, are concerned about the absence or presence of negative outcomes and employ vigilance strategies, being careful, and avoiding possible problems.

Tendencies to engage in either promotion or prevention focus are innate. In addition to this however, a regulatory focus can be temporarily induced due to situational demands (Brockner and Higgins, 2001; Ouschan et al., 2007). That is, a predominantly promotion focused individual can potentially engage a prevention focus under certain circumstances. A state of regulatory fit occurs when a promotion focus is engaged and promotion related strategies (eagerness, risk-taking etc.) are employed. This creates a feel of ‘rightness’ about the goal pursuit, intensifies responses, and enhances engagement (Higgins, 2000). Conversely, when a promotion focus is engaged with prevention strategies, a state of non-fit is created, which may feel ‘wrong’. One regulatory focus is not better than the other, the main concern is finding a match between the focus and the strategies/circumstances and hence creating regulatory fit.

Through their research into emotions and regulatory focus, Brocker and Higgins (2001) suggest that regulatory focus has an impact on a number of work related topics such as person-organization fit, change management, and decision-making. The way in which individuals of varying prevention and promotion foci approach work has an impact on the entire organization.

As mentioned above, prevention focused individuals are significantly more concerned with the need for security. This need for security has not been specifically measured in terms of job security. Therefore, for the current study, prevention focus has been added as a moderator for both well-being and engagement. It is assumed that those with a higher prevention focus will be more affected by job security than those with a lower prevention focus.

Hypothesis 1b (H1b): Prevention focus will moderate the effect job security has on employee well-being, in the sense that, there will be a stronger effect on employee well-being among individuals with a higher prevention focus.

Hypothesis 2b (H2b): Prevention focus will moderate the effect job security has on employee engagement, in the sense that, there will be a stronger effect on employee engagement among individuals with a higher prevention focus.

For exploratory purposes, the influence of promotion focus will also be assessed in relation to well-being and engagement. Promotion focus will be assessed in a similar manner to prevention focus, and will be assessed as a moderator to the relationship between job security and well-being/engagement. Due to limited previous investigation into the association between promotion focus and security, the direction of the relationship is not predicted.

Method

Participants

A total of 441 employees (and ex-employees) of a prestigious international architectural and design organization were asked to participate in the study. Of these employees, 159 returned data (response rate of 36%). A total of 125 of the participants' data were useable for this particular study, due to some incomplete data. After deleting missing cases list-wise, the demographic make-up consisted of 52 females (41.6%) and 73 males (58.4%). Ages ranged from 18 to 54 years with a median falling between 25 and 29 years. Demographics and employment information are shown in Table 1 and Table 2.

Table 1.

Descriptive statistics (n=125)

Characteristic	Category	n	%
Age	18-24	28	22%
	25-29	51	41%
	30-34	28	22%
	35-39	11	9%
	40-44	3	2%
	45-59	3	2%
	50-54	1	1%
	55+	0	0%
Gender	Male	73	58%
	Female	52	42%

Table 2.

Descriptive employment statistics (n=125)

Employment Characteristic	Category	n	%
Employment status	Current employee	108	86%
	Ex-Employee	17	14%
Employment type	Full-time	116	93%
	Part-time	6	5%
	On-Call	3	2%
Department	Creative	92	74%
	Support	33	26%
Position	Intern	44	35%
	Junior	35	28%
	Intermediate	19	15%
	Senior	22	18%
	Associate	4	3%
	Partner	1	1%
Most recent contract length	Less than 3 months	10	8%
	3-6 months	70	56%
	7-12 months	23	18%
	More than 12 months	4	3%
	Indefinite	18	14%

Procedure

Twice a week a group of 20 random potential participants were contacted via their company e-mail to volunteer their participation in the study. These smaller groups were used to moderate the risk of contaminating results due to group discussions on the topics.

Participants were informed that the purpose of the study was for a Masters' thesis (and therefore not linked to the organization) and that all anonymity and confidentiality

would be maintained. The e-mail contained an online link to the questionnaires (using NetQ), which could be accessed at anytime on multiple occasions within a two-month time frame.

Measures

A total of four questionnaires were used along with the aforementioned demographic measures (Appendix A).

Formal Job Security (FJS). To obtain information regarding formal job security, participants were asked to state their current contract length (less than three months, three to six months, seven to 12 months, more than 12 months, or indefinite).

Perceived Job Security (PJS). To assess perceived job security, a similar method to Origo and Pagani (2008) was used. Participants answered the following question; “How likely or unlikely is it that you will lose your job for some reason over the next twelve months (that is, your contract will not be renewed or it will end prior to the end date)? Would you say it is: very likely (1); quite likely (2); not very likely (3); not likely at all (4)?”.

Job-Related Affective Well-Being Scale (JAWS). The JAWS is a 30-item scale that measures affective well-being by asking participants to respond to statements about their reactions to work in the last 30 days on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1, “never” to 5, “extremely often” (Van Katwyk et al., 2000). The JAWS is designed to show patterns of affective states and related experience to the specific context. The JAWS can be assessed as a total scale ($\alpha=0.94$), across positive and negative emotions ($\alpha=0.92$ and $\alpha=0.89$ respectively) or across its four subscales: High Pleasurable-High Arousal (Excitement, HPHA, $\alpha=0.88$), High Pleasurable-Low Arousal (Contentment, HPLA, $\alpha=0.72$), Low Pleasurable-High Arousal (Distress, LPHA, $\alpha=0.73$) and finally Low Pleasurable-Low Arousal (Depression, LPLA, $\alpha=0.69$). Note, this falls below the critical value of $\alpha=0.70$, in contrast with previous research where it usually falls around $\alpha=0.80$ (Van Katwyk et al., 2000). Low Pleasurable items are related to negative emotions, for example “My job made me feel angry” (LPHA) and, “My job made me feel discouraged” (LPLA), whereas High Pleasurable items are related to positive emotions, “My job made me feel excited” (HPHA) and “My job made me feel relaxed” (HPLA).

Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES). The UWES uses 17-items made up of six vigor items, five dedication items, and six absorption items to assess the work engagement of participants (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2003). Participants were asked to respond to the frequency of how often they feel the given statement on a seven point Likert scale ranging from 1, “Never” to 7, “Always”, with “Always” indicating every day. Questions include “At

my work I feel bursting with energy” to measure vigor, “I am proud of the work I do” for the dedication subscale and “It is difficult to detach myself from my job” as an absorption item. The UWES can be used as a total scale or through using the three subscales (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2003). In our study the internal consistency appeared to be high for both the whole scale ($\alpha=0.93$) and three factor model using the subscales ($\alpha=0.81$, $\alpha=0.91$ $\alpha=0.80$ for absorption, dedication and vigor respectively).

Regulatory Focus Strategies Scale (RFSS). To measure the moderator, regulatory focus, Ouschan et. al. (2007)’s Regulatory Focus Strategies Scale (RFSS) was used. The RFSS is a 14-item scale, participants mark to what extent they agree with a statement on a five-point scale, ranging from 1, ‘strongly agree’, to 5, ‘strongly disagree’. The measure is split into two subscales: promotion focus and prevention focus. There are eight promotion focus items, such as “Taking risks is essential to success”. These eight items have an internal reliability of $\alpha=0.65$. Note; this is considerably lower than the alpha of 0.75 obtained by Ouschan et al. (2007) in their development of the measure. As the reliability closely approaches the acceptable threshold for reliability estimates and removal of items did not improve the internal consistency, further analyses were completed using the existing response data. The remaining six items are used to measure prevention focus ($\alpha=0.73$) and include questions such as “Being cautious is the best policy for success”.

Statistical Analyses.

Multiple linear regressions were conducted to analyze the data using both scales and subscales of well-being and engagement as dependent variables. To evaluate hypotheses H1b, H2b and the exploratory assessment of promotion focus, the moderating effect of both prevention and promotion focus were added individually using the methods proposed by Aiken and West (1999). Standardized variables were used for moderation analyses.

Results

Preliminary Analyses

Ranges, means, and standard deviations were calculated for each of the variables for the current data. These, along with norms for comparison, are shown in Table 3. Most means obtained in the current study are similar to those found in the previous literature. Exceptions lie within the well-being scores, which were marginally lower for the current participants than in previous literature (Spector, 2006), $t(237)=3.10$, $p<0.05$. Furthermore, on average, individuals scored considerably higher on the LPHA (Distress) ($t(237)=6.07$, $p<0.05$) and

LPLA (Depressed) ($t(237)=5.55, p<0.05$) subscales with mean scores of the current study falling almost an entire standard deviation above the norms. Specifically, participants in this study were found to be considerably more distressed and depressed than the norm scores.

In addition, correlations were obtained for each of the variables with the independent variables, perceived and formal job security. These are shown in Table 4. Most significant correlations were found with well-being scores and promotion focus scores. Note, no significant correlations were found with prevention focus.

Table 3.
Descriptive statistics of scores (n=125)

	Current Sample		Norms*	
	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation
<i>Regulatory Focus- RFSS</i>				
Promotion Focus	28.41	4.10	28.16	4.24
Prevention Focus	18.22	3.79	19.56	3.36
<i>Engagement- UWES</i>				
Total	80.9	14.31	81.94	18.70
Absorption	28.88	5.29	27.36	6.60
Dedication	23.81	5.28	24.05	6.55
Vigor	28.20	5.24	29.94	6.48
<i>Well-Being- JAWS</i>				
Total	98.94**	16.5	105.6**	16.70
HPHA	15.88	3.78	14.40	3.90
HPLA	15.26	3.01	16.50	3.40
LPHA	12.07**	3.33	9.50**	3.20
LPLA	13.44**	3.30	11.00**	3.50

*Norms were obtained from the following sources; RFSS- Ouschan et al. (2007), UWES- Schaufeli and Bakker (2003), and JAWS- Spector (2006).

** Significant difference between current sample and norm scores at the $p < 0.05$ level.

Table 4.

Correlation coefficients for well-being and engagement scales with job security and regulatory focus (n=125)

	PJS	FJS	Promotion Focus	Prevention Focus
PJS				
FJS	0.33*			
Promotion Focus	0.06	-0.02		
Prevention Focus	0.09	-0.06	-0.13	
JAWS Total	-0.04	0.05	0.34*	-0.10
JAWS HPHA	0.02	0.15	0.34*	-0.16
JAWS HPLA	-0.05	0.08	0.28*	-0.12
JAWS LPHA	0.19*	0.22*	-0.20*	-0.01
JAWS LPLA	-0.10	-0.15	-0.26*	0.11
UWES Total	0.13	0.18*	0.29*	-0.14
UWES Absorption	0.11	0.17	0.18*	-0.15
UWES Dedication	0.14	0.21*	0.27*	-0.09
UWES Vigor	0.11	0.11	0.34*	-0.14

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

Hypotheses Testing

Multiple linear regression analyses were conducted to evaluate the relationship between perceived job security and well-being (H1a) and engagement (H2a) while controlling for formal job security. These were all found to be not significant at the $p < 0.05$ level. That is, after controlling for effects of formal security on well-being and engagement, no significant relationship could be found between perceived job security and well-being or engagement. These results do not support our initial hypotheses. Results shown are shown in Table 5.

Table 5.					
<i>Hierarchical linear regression analyses of well-being/engagement on PJS and FJS</i>					
<i>(n=125)</i>					
	Variable	R ²	B	SE B	β
Total JAWS					
Step 1	FJS	0.00	0.55	1.24	0.04
Step 2	FJS	0.01	0.82	1.31	0.06
	PJS		-1.04	1.67	-0.06
JAWS HPHA					
Step 1	FJS	0.02	0.46	0.28	0.14
Step 2	FJS	0.02	0.49	0.30	0.15
	PJS		-0.11	0.38	-0.03
JAWS HPLA					
Step 1	FJS	0.01	0.23	0.22	0.09
Step 2	FJS	0.02	0.30	0.23	0.12
	PJS		-0.29	0.30	-0.09
JAWS LPHA					
Step 1	FJS	0.05	0.64	0.25	0.22*
Step 2	FJS	0.06	0.52	0.26	0.18*
	PJS		0.47	0.33	0.13
JAWS LPLA					
Step 1	FJS	0.02	-0.37	0.25	-0.13
Step 2	FJS	0.02	-0.31	0.27	-0.11
	PJS		-0.22	0.34	-0.06
Total UWES					
Step 1	FJS	0.03	2.23	1.10	0.18*
Step 2	FJS	0.04	1.90	1.16	0.15
	PJS		1.27	1.49	0.08
UWES Absorption					
Step 1	FJS	0.03	0.77	0.41	0.17
Step 2	FJS	0.03	0.68	0.43	0.15
	PJS		0.34	0.55	0.06
UWES Dedication					
Step 1	FJS	0.05	0.10	0.40	0.21*
Step 2	FJS	0.05	0.85	0.43	0.19*
	PJS		0.47	0.55	0.08

UWES Vigor					
Step 1	FJS	0.01	0.50	0.41	0.11
Step 2	FJS	0.02	0.38	0.43	0.08
	PJS		0.46	0.55	0.08

**Significant at the p<0.05 level (2-tailed)*

It was decided that controlling for formal security was too stringent. Therefore, in line with previous research by Mauno et al. (2005), the effects of formal and perceived job security on well-being and engagement were analyzed individually. Using this method a number of main effects were found. A significant main effect of perceived employment security on the JAWS LPHA (Distress) was found, $\beta=0.19$, $p<0.05$, $R^2=0.04$. Other significant results include formal job security on JAWS LPHA (Distress) ($\beta=0.22$), formal job security on total engagement ($\beta=0.18$), and formal job security on dedication ($\beta=0.21$). These results can be found in Table 5 above. The results indicate that as job security (both perceived and formal) increases so does distress (JAWS LPHA). This is contrary to expectations. In addition, as formal security increases, levels of engagement also increase. Finally, formal job security was also found to have a positive main effect on the UWES dedication subscale; as formal security rises, levels of dedication tend to rise as well.

To test hypotheses H1b, H2b, and the exploratory analyses of promotion focus (identifying the interactive relationship of regulatory focus as a moderator to job security and well-being and engagement (respectively)), regulatory focus was added as a moderator. In line with earlier results from this study, formal and perceived job security were analyzed separately. In addition, promotion and prevention focus were also entered independently. Comparable significant main effects were attained when analyzing both formal and perceived job security. In general significant promotion focus yielded a large number of significant results. Furthermore, no significant results were obtained for prevention focus. Table 6 shows the results from the first step of the analyses (main effects) for perceived job security and promotion focus.

Table 6.
Main effects of interaction analyses with regulatory focus

Variable	R ²	B	SE B	β
Total JAWS	0.12*			
PJS		-0.09	1.40	-0.06
Promotion Focus		5.70	1.40	0.35*
JAWS HPHA	0.12*			

PJS		-0.01	0.31	0.00
Promotion Focus		1.29	0.32	0.35*
JAWS HPLA	0.08*			
PJS		-0.21	0.26	-0.07
Promotion Focus		0.86	0.26	0.28*
JAWS LPHA	0.07*			
PJS		0.63	0.29	0.19*
Promotion Focus		-0.68	0.29	-0.20*
JAWS LPLA	0.08*			
PJS		-0.28	0.29	-0.10
Promotion Focus		-0.85	0.29	-0.25*
Total UWES	0.10*			
PJS		1.62	1.22	0.11
Promotion Focus		4.00	1.23	0.28*
UWES Absorption	0.04			
PJS		0.51	0.47	0.10
Promotion Focus		0.90	0.47	0.17
UWES Dedication	0.09*			
PJS		0.66	0.45	0.13
Promotion Focus		1.36	0.46	0.26*
UWES Vigor	0.12*			
PJS		0.45	0.44	0.09
Promotion Focus		1.73	0.44	0.33*

**Value significant at the $p > 0.05$ level*

Of all possible combinations between perceived/formal job security, promotion/prevention focus and well-being/engagement and their subscales, one significant interaction was found, namely between perceived job security and promotion focus on the UWES absorption subscale (see Table 7). After entry of the interaction PJSxPromotion at step 2, the total explained variance of the model was 7.3%, $F(3,121) = 3.19, p < 0.05$. The addition of the interaction explained a further 3.2% of the variance in Absorption, $F \text{ change} = (1,121) = 4.23, p < 0.05$. That is, the interaction effect of PJSxPromotion was found to be significant ($\beta = -0.18, p < 0.05$). The effect of perceived job security, on absorption, affects low promotion scoring individuals more than those with a high promotion focus. This is represented in Figure 1 and supports our exploratory hypothesis that promotion focus moderates the effect of job security.

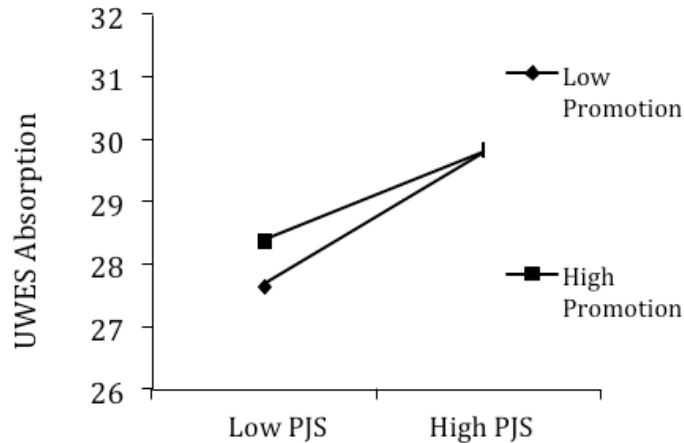


Figure 1. Interaction effect of promotion focus and perceived job security on Absorption.

It should be noted that our other hypotheses were not supported. In regard to H1b and H2b, the effect job security had on well-being/engagement (respectively) was not stronger for high prevention focused individuals. In fact, prevention focus did not moderate the effect at all. This is against our proposed hypotheses. In addition, for the exploratory analyses of promotion focus, of all nine scales and subscales of well-being and engagement with both formal and perceived security, one was found to yield a significant interaction with promotion focus, as such it should be interpreted with relative caution.

Exploratory Analyses

To understand the results further, exploratory analyses were completed. Anecdotal evidence from qualitative interviews conducted at the workplace suggested that employees who had been working at the company for a longer period of time tended to be less engaged and showed lower levels of well-being. As such, employment length was used as a control for the significant main effects of both formal and perceived job security on well-being and engagement scores.

After controlling for length of employment, it was found that the relationship between both perceived and formal job security and the JAWS LPHA (Distress) subscale were no longer significant. Increased job security no longer significantly predicted distress levels among participants ($\beta = 0.16$ and $\beta = 0.22$ respectively, $p > 0.05$).

Results for engagement measures remained significant at the $p < 0.05$ level after controlling for length of employment. For total engagement scores on formal job security, the total explained variance of the model was 7.8%, $F(2,122) = 5.10$, $p < 0.05$, $\beta = 0.02$, and for the Dedication subscale, 8.6% of the total variance was

significantly explained ($F(2,122) = 5.78, p < 0.05, \beta = 0.05$). Even after controlling for employment length, as formal security increases, engagement levels also rise.

Final results may also have been influenced by a large number of younger participants (63.20% below 29 years). Therefore, the effect of age was added as a second moderator to hypotheses H1b and H2b, and three-way interactions were analyzed. Namely, the relationship between well-being/engagement and job security was evaluated with the moderating effects of both prevention/promotion and age. A number of significant three-way interactions were found with age, prevention/promotion focus and perceived job security on both well-being and engagement. Note, no significant three-way interactions with formal job security were found for any of the dependent variables.

Results have only been reported for perceived job security with total well-being scales. It should be noted that comparable results were obtained when analyzing the well-being subscales as well as engagement and its subscales (for engagement only in relation to prevention focus), an overview of these results can be found in Appendix B.

It was found that younger people with a high promotion score or low prevention score with increasing levels of job security consistently report poorer well-being scores. For the total well-being, the three-way interaction $PJS \times Promotion \times Age$ appeared to be significant ($R^2 \text{ change} = 0.03, F \text{ change}(1,120) = 4.85, p < 0.05, \beta = 0.20, p < 0.05$). Those with low age and high promotion focus were considerably less happy with increased security and those with a low age and low promotion focus were slightly negatively affected by increased job security in terms of total well-being; this is shown in Figure 2.1. The effect of low prevention scores further exemplifies this relationship. The $PJS \times Prevention \times Age$ interaction was significant ($R^2 \text{ change} = 0.07, F \text{ change}(1,120) = 8.77, p < 0.05, \beta = -0.28, p < 0.05$). It appeared that younger participants with a low prevention focus show considerably poorer well-being with higher levels of security. Younger participants with a high prevention focus, on the other hand, benefit in terms of total well-being from job security. This is shown in Figure 2.2.

Conversely to the patterns shown in younger participants, older people with a high promotion focus with increasing job security, consistently show higher levels of well-being. In contrast, older participants with low promotion focus tend to have poorer total well-being with increased job security. These results can be found in

Figure 2.1 also. Furthermore, older people with both high low prevention focus only show small deviations in well-being scores across perceived job security. These results are shown graphically in Figures 2.2.

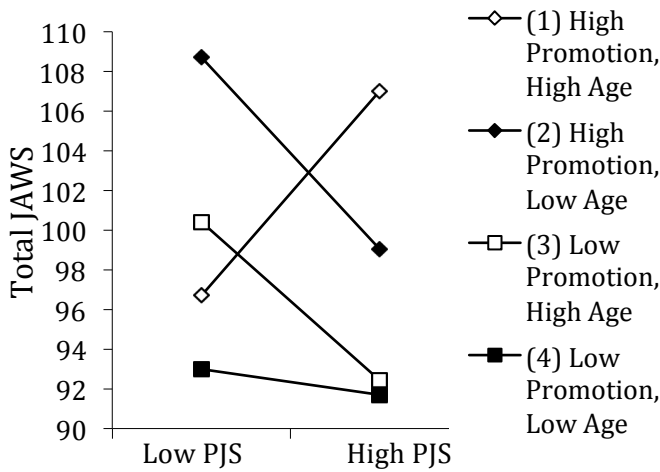


Figure 2.1. Three-way interaction of PJSxPromotionxAge on total JAWS scores.

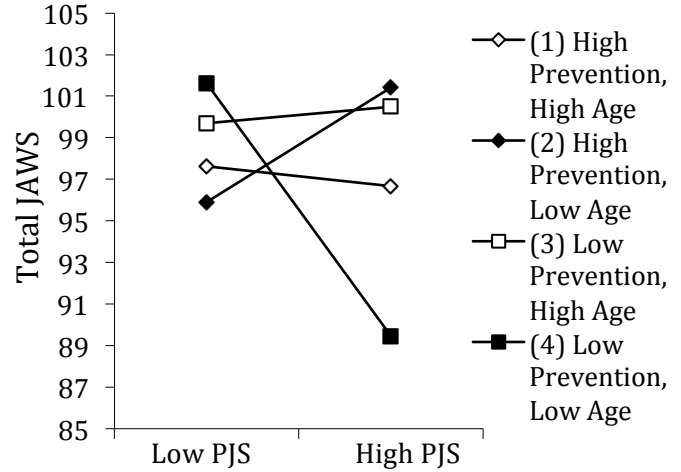


Figure 2.2. Three-way interaction of PJSxPreventionxAge on Total JAWS scores.

Discussion

The aim of this study was to evaluate the relationship between job security, well-being, engagement and regulatory focus. The findings were more complex than expected and deviated in some instances from our hypotheses. Our hypotheses were not supported; firstly, perceived job security did not form a significant relationship with any of the well-being or engagement measures after controlling for formal job security (H1a and H2a). Secondly, it was hypothesized that a higher prevention focus would more strongly affect the relationship between job security and well-being and engagement (H1b and H2b); this was also not supported. For exploratory purposes, promotion focus was also assessed as a moderator; this yielded a singular significant interaction. Higher promotion focused individuals were less affected by perceived job in regard to their absorption. Explanations of the findings, as well as a detailed approach to the findings from exploratory analyses in regard to age can be found in this section. In addition, limitations of the study and suggestions for further research are discussed.

This study underlines the importance of job security measurement. Initially formal job security was used as a control for perceived security (H1a and H2a). This method was chosen to eliminate the objective effect of job security. This was deemed

important for this study, as subjective indicators are likely to better capture relationships with other subjective matters such as well-being and engagement (De Cuyper, et al., 2008; van Vuuren et al., 2010). However, the aforementioned insignificant results suggest that the method of eliminating formal job security may be too stringent. Due to the contradictory outcomes, both indicators, formal and perceived job security, were used individually for the subsequent analyses.

Significant associations were found for perceived job security with distress and formal job security with distress and depression, as well as total engagement and its dedication subscale. In terms of well-being, both perceived and formal job security were found to be positively associated with the distress (JAWS LPHA) scores. The relationship between formal job security and depression was also positive (as security increased so did depression levels). These findings are counterintuitive and contrary to previous literature, which suggests one's well-being should improve with enhanced job security (Stander and Rothmann, 2010; van Shalwyk et al., 2010). Anecdotal evidence from interviews conducted at the workplace suggested that the inversed relationship between job security and well-being may be due to an external effect of total employment term. Further analytical assessment by controlling for total contract term supported this and explains the otherwise contradictory results regarding job security and poor well-being.

The significant main effects found regarding job security and engagement, were in line with past findings (Bosman et al., 2005; Rothmann and Rothmann, 2010; Stander and Rothmann, 2010), as job security improved both total engagement and dedication specifically also improved. The possible underlying cause of this relationship is best explained in negative terms, that is, as job insecurity escalates, engagement worsens. This is thought to be due to the breach of psychological contract caused by job insecurity, "erod[ing] the notion of reciprocity" (Bosman et al., 2005).

In addition, the effect perceived job security has on absorption was found to be stronger for individuals with a lower promotion focus. As previously mentioned, absorption is described as a pleasant state of total immersion (Stander and Rothmann, 2010). Fatimah and colleagues (2012) found comparable results to our study, indicating that individuals tend to be less absorbed in their work when faced with job insecurity, caused by the stresses job insecurity puts on someone at an individual level. In addition, someone with a high promotion focus is concerned with advancement, growth and accomplishment (Shan, Higgins and Freidman, 1998).

Possibly, an individual concerned with these factors and getting the most out of their job may find it easier to remain absorbed in his/her work more than someone with a low promotion focus, regardless of job security.

As previously noted, absorption was the only characteristic that yielded a significant result. It has been suggested that absorption is sometimes considered less of a 'core' component of engagement than dedication or vigor, and could be viewed more as 'flow' (see Mauno et al., 2007). This concept of absorption as flow should be further investigated to draw more concrete conclusions regarding the interaction effects found between job security and regulatory focus on absorption.

The results in regard to the moderation effects of regulatory focus should be interpreted with caution, due to the general limited significant results established in the study as a whole. Of a possible 18 outcomes in relation to promotion focus and perceived/formal job security on well-being and engagement and its subscales, only one significant interaction was found. Moreover, of the further 18 outcomes for the expected interactions between prevention focus and perceived/formal job security on well-being (H1b) and engagement (H2b) no significant results were obtained. For prevention focus this is particularly counterintuitive and does not support our proposed hypotheses. The reasoning for this is unknown, and further investigations should be undertaken to better understand this relationship.

The initial lack of significant results prompted further exploratory analyses using anecdotal evidence as a guide. Age was assessed as a second moderator (in addition to regulatory focus) to the relationship between job security and well-being. These yielded a number of significant results, with the general trend being a difference in the attitudes towards job security across differing ages.

In summary the data shows: older workers with a high promotion focus conform with the findings in previous research regarding well-being in that their well-being improves with increasing job security; older workers with a low promotion focus have reduced well-being with increasing job security; there are only small deviations across well-being for both high and low prevention focused older workers given any level of job security; younger workers with both high and low promotion focus, as well as low prevention focus, show decreased well-being with enhanced job security and hence go against said norms; finally, younger workers with a high prevention focus conform to norms and benefit from job security in terms of total well-being.

Generational differences between work attitudes may explain the above results. Sumola and Sutton (2002) describe generational groups (or cohorts), as groups of people who are born in similar times and as such share historical and social life experiences, the effects of which are relatively stable over the course of their lives. Although vast research has been conducted into differences between generations, little has focused on the desire for job security.

In the current study, older workers with a high promotion focus were found to benefit from job security. For our study, 'older' workers are comprised of those belonging to both the Baby Boomer (born in the 1950's) and Generation X-ers (including those born in the 1960's to early 1980's). The Baby Boomer generation is described as valuing job security, having a great attachment to the organization, and a strong desire for stability (Twenge, 2010; Burk, Olsen and Messerli, 2011). Generation X-ers report similar attitudes towards the moral importance of work (that is, working hard makes one a better person and one should work hard even when a supervisor is not present), however, they tend to be more inclined to leave their everyday employment to achieve personal goals (Sumola and Sutton, 2002; Burk, Olsen and Messerli, 2001). Although Generation X-ers want to work toward their own goals, they concurrently aim to achieve organizational goals at a high standard too, and often define themselves by their jobs; as such they benefit from job security. A high perceived job security is therefore likely to result in enhanced well-being for Baby Boomers as well as Generation X-ers. This general relationship does not take into account regulatory focus.

As previously mentioned, the enhanced well-being with high security for older workers predominantly relates to those with a high promotion focus. High promotion focused individuals are largely concerned with work related gains and likely to utilize risk-taking strategies (Higgins, 1997). It could be assumed that this group of 'risk-takers' is likely to most benefit from the safety net of job security and therefore well-being is at its best under these conditions. The current study indicates that total well-being decreases with increasing levels of job security for older workers with a low promotion focus; presenting a counterintuitive result. Also, both high and low prevention focused older individuals showed only small deviations in well-being across job security. This relationship appears rational for low prevention focused individuals only. Further investigation is required to more clearly understand the relationships at play.

Significantly different relationships were found for younger workers. These results could give new insight into the desire for job security in a younger generation of workers, namely generation Y-ers (those born in the early 1980's to early 2000's) with varying regulatory focuses. Generation Y workers are often considered 'job hoppers', eager to embrace new opportunities, 'here today, gone tomorrow', and are expected to change their profession or career five to eight times in their lives (Clausing et al., 2003; Carver and Candela, 2008; Gursory et al., 2008; Mullan, 2008; Twenge, 2010; Burk, Olsen and Messerli, 2011). Generation Y-ers have been found to value security less than Generation X-ers and Baby Boomers (Windsor et al., 2012), however, still wanted more security than they currently received (Twenge, 2010). Workers of this generation are also considered to be very self reliant, taking responsibility of their own success. Moreover, they believe learning is a 'lifelong priority' and are constantly on the lookout for new experiences and opportunities. These younger employees tend to be highly committed to their work and eager to go the extra mile in order to gain more recognition (Laff, 2008). They not only want to develop themselves, they also want to make a positive contribution to society as a whole, leaving work less central to their lives (Clausing et al., 2003; Twenge, 2010; Burk, Olsen and Messerli, 2011). An important characteristic to note is their commitment to family and friends (Gursory et al., 2008; Twenge, 2010; Burk, Olsen and Messerli, 2011). As such, they also often seek employment within organizations that provide a 'family-like' or team feeling (Epstein and Hershatter, 2010; Windsor et al., 2012). Generally, Generation Y-ers want to be in a loyal relationship with their employers, and believe it is an important aspect of work, however, they report the highest level of turnover.

So how could a job security result in a decreased well-being for this generation of younger workers? There is an apparent dissociation within the values of Generation Y workers. They put strong emphasis on family and friends, and seek out organizations with a family type environment. As such, one would expect they feel obliged to return loyalty to an organization that gives them loyalty (resulting in a high perceived job),. This however conflicts with their desire to follow opportunities and challenges and keep career options open. Generation Y-ers may not want to disappoint their organizations and break a trust that has been given to them through high job security, but at the same time, will want to leave for greener pastures given the opportunity. This dissociation of values may be an underlying cause of the poorer

well-being found among younger workers within the organization examined in this study.

This however doesn't take into account the added effect of regulatory focus. The aforementioned interaction, which sees well-being decrease with increasing job security for younger workers only holds true for those with a high promotion focus or low prevention focus. High promotion focused individuals are more inclined to take risks, and may be more inclined to embrace new opportunities. This, in addition to the previously mentioned dissociation of loyalty vs. opportunities creates a logical link between the younger, high promotion workers' significantly decreased well-being with increasing job security. Conversely, younger workers with a low promotion focus only show slight deviations across job security in regard to well-being; this is in line with the same reasoning.

On the other hand, younger employees with a high prevention focus have increased well-being with increasing job security. This is in line with literature on regulatory focus of prevention focused individuals' need for security (Higgins, 1997), rather than the conceptualized ideas created here regarding Generation Y-ers. This suggests that the influence of a high prevention focus exceeds the effects of the aforementioned dissociation of values. The inversed relationship for low prevention focused individuals is slightly more complex and more investigation is required to understand it completely.

Limitations of the Current Study and Suggestions for Future Research

Like many a social study, the current research has been limited by a number of factors. First and foremost, the set of participants used for the study could limit the extendibility to other groups. As previously mentioned, Salladavre et al. (2011) found workers in the Netherlands to be less affected by job security than those from other European nations; this may have impacted our study. Furthermore, all participants in the current study had been or were employed by one particular prestigious international design firm. Both empirical and anecdotal evidence suggested that the culture within this organization was noteworthy. Participants were significantly more distressed and depressed and conveyed a poorer well-being overall than is found in the norms. Further to this, individuals at the organization reported working long hours for little gain other than the respect from working in the prestigious organization. The prestige earned from working in the firm may be the driving force to work rather than

more classical motivations. Consequently the relationships found in this study may not be relevant to the wider working world.

Furthermore, many of the variables used ordinal categories rather than a continuous scale for measurement. For example, ages were assessed in ranges rather than using a scale method. In addition, perceived job security was assessed using only one question on a four-point scale, which may not give a precise representation of the measure. Thus, conclusions made in relation to these variables should be interpreted with caution. Future research could assess age more using continuous scale methods and using multiple questions to assess perceived job security to gain a better understanding between the relationships at hand.

A considerable amount of the results were found to be not significant; it was after a number of deeper analyses that interpretable results were established. This possibly limits the validity of the results. The study should be repeated on a number of different participants groups on a larger scale in order to assess the reliability of results.

The cross-sectional design of the study presents difficulties in establishing cause and effect and the associations are difficult to interpret. Assumptions have been made on the basis of previous research to support the relationships found. Namely, the underlying reasoning for relationships has been conceptualized based on previous literature. Limited research has been conducted in the field of job security and generational differences; and those conducted have been very recent. More research would need to be completed to confirm and understand these interactions for a younger generation.

Implications for Organizations

How do these relationships affect management processes and the wider community? As previously mentioned poor well-being and engagement of employees has been linked to reduced productivity and performance on an individual and organizational level. Furthermore, reduced well-being can have wider repercussions in a society putting stress on medical and welfare systems. Managers will need to re-think how they reward their employees to enhance their well-being and engagement. Specifically, focusing strategies on personal development and growth rather than traditional methods of rewarding through long-term benefits and security. In order to do this effectively however, regulatory focus of individuals will need to be considered and specific strategies must be tailored accordingly. For example, rewarding older

high promotion focused individuals with indefinite contracts and a strong sense of job security, and conversely, younger high promotion focused individuals with reasons to stay, such as opportunities for growth and development. Further research into this topic would benefit organizations' understanding on how to best manage, reward and gain the commitment of this younger generation of workers. These findings may have a marked effect on how organizations manage their employees of different generations into the future.

Conclusions

Firstly, our study found differences between perceived and formal job security, future research methods should be conscious of these differences. Secondly, we could not support the theory that high prevention focused individuals benefit from job security in terms of well-being and engagement. It was however found that higher promotion focused individuals were less affected by job security. Finally, and most remarkably, job security affects younger workers significantly differently than older workers. Specific interactions occur depending on an individual's regulatory focus. Younger workers with a high promotion or low prevention focus hold differing values in relation to organizational commitment than their older counterparts. It has been theorized that younger workers may experience a dissociation between loyalty for their organization and the drive to seek new and better opportunities, which causes their well-being to decrease with enhanced job security. These differences in attitudes towards job security across generational workers with differing regulatory foci have an impact on managerial strategies in today's workplace and into the future.

References

- Aiken, L. S., & West, S. G. (1991). *Multiple regression: Testing and interpreting interactions*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage
- Baron, R.M. & Kenny, D.A. (1986). The moderator-mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal-of Personality-and-Social-Psychology*, *51*, 1173-1182.
- Boselie,, P. (2010). *Strategic Human Resource Management: A balanced approach*. The McGraw-Hill Companies. pp. 21-22.
- Bosman, J., Rothmann, S., and Buitendaen, J.H. (2005). Job insecurity, burnout and work engagement: The impact of positive and negative affectivity. *South African Journal of Industrial Psychology*, *31*, 48-56.
- Brocker, J. and, Higgins, E.T. (2001). "Regulatory Focus Theory: Implications for the study of emotions at work" *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *86*, 35-66.
- Burk, B., Olsen, H., and Messerli, J. (2011). Navigating the Generation Gap in the workplace from the perspective of Gen Y. *Parks and Recreation*, *46*, 35-37.
- Carver, L. and Candela, L. (2008). Attaining organizational commitment across different generations of workers. *Journal of Nursing Management*, *16*, 984-991.
- Clausing, S.L, Kurtz, D., Prendeville, J. and Walt, J.L. (2003). Generational Diversity- the Nexters. *AORN Journal*, *78*, 373-379.
- Crowe, E., and Higgins, T. (1997). Regulatory Focus and Strategic Inclinations: Promotion and Prevention in Decision Making. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decisions Process*, *69*, 117-132.
- Davidson, P., Simon, A., Gottschalk, L., Hunt, J., Wood, G., and Griffin R. (2006). *Management: core concepts and skills*. John Wiley & Sons Australia. pp. 234-267.
- De Cuyper, N., Bernhard-Oettel, C., Berntson, E., De Witte, H., and Alarco, B. (2008). Employability and employees' well-being: Mediation by job insecurity. *Applied Psychology: an international review*, *57*, 488-509.
- De Cuyper, N., and De Witte, H. (2005). Job insecurity: Mediator or moderator of the relationship between type of contract and various outcomes. *South African Journal of Industrial Psychology*, *31*, 79-86.

- De Witte, H. (1999). Job insecurity and psychological well-being: Review of the literature and exploration of some unresolved issues. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 8, 155–177.
- Epstein, M. and Hershatter, A. (2010). Millennials and the world of work: An organization and management perspective. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 25, 211-223.
- Fatimah O., Norasisnan D., Nasir R., and Khairuddin R. (2012). Employment security as a moderator on the effect of job security on workers' job satisfaction and well-being. *Asian Social Science*, 8, 50-56.
- Gursoy, D., Maier, T.A., and Chi, C.G. (2008). Generational differences: An examination of work values and generational gaps in the hospitality workforce. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 27, 448-458.
- Higgins, E. T. (1997). Beyond pleasure and pain. *American Psychologist*, 52, 1280–1300.
- Higgins, E. T. (2000). Making a good decision: Value from fit. *American Psychologist*, 55, 1217-1230
- Korner, A., Reitzle, M., and Sibereisen, R. (2012). Work-related demands and life satisfaction: The effects of engagement and disengagement amount employed and long-term unemployed people. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, 80, 187-196.
- Lauber, C., and Bowen, J. (2010). Low mood and employment: when affective disorders are intertwined with the workplace- A UK perspective. *International Review of Psychiatry*, 22, 173-182.
- Lyons, S.T., Ng, E.S.W., and Schweitzer, L. (2010). New Generation, Great expectations: A field study of the Millennial generation. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 25, 281-292.
- Marchington, M., and Grugulis, I. (2000). “Best Practice Human Resource Management: Perfect opportunity or dangerous illusion?” *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 11, 1104-1124.
- Mullan, E. (2008). The Generational Divide: World of work survey encourages collaboration. *Econtent*, 31, 16-17.
- Nankervis, A., Compton, R., and Baird, Marian. (2005). *Human Resource Management; strategies and processes* (Fifth edition). South-Western Publishing Co. pp. 144-147, 265-299.

- Origo, F. and Pagani L. (2008). Flexicurity and job satisfaction in Europe: The importance of perceived and actual job stability for well-being at work. *Labour Economics*, 16, 547-555.
- Ouschan, L., Boldero, J.M., Kashima, Y., Wakimoto, R., and Kashima, E.S. (2007). Regulatory Focus Strategies Scale: A measure of individual differences in the endorsement of regulatory strategies. *Asian Journal of Social Psychology*, 10, 243-257.
- Perrwe, P. and Zellars, K. (1999). An examination of attribution and emotions in the transactional approach to the organizational stress process. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 20, 739-752.
- Pfeffer, J. (1998). Seven Practices of Successful Organizations. *California Management Review*, 40, 96-124.
- Rothmann, S., and Rothmann S., JR. (2010). Factors associated with employee engagement in South Africa. *South African Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 36, 309-321.
- Schaufeli, W.B., & Bakker, A.B. (2001). Werk en welbevinden: Naar een positieve benadering in de Arbeids- en Gezondheidspsychologie [Work and well-being: Toward a positive approach in Occupational Health]. *Gedrag & Organisatie*, 14, 229-253.
- Schaufeli, and Bakker (2003). The Utrecht Work Engagement Scale. Available from: http://www.fss.uu.nl/sop/Schaufeli/Tests/UWES_GB_17.pdf
- Shah, J., Higgins, T., and Friedman, R. (1998). Performance Incentives and Means: How Regulatory Focus Influences Goal Attainment. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 74, 285-293.
- Silla, I., De Cuyper, N., Garcia, F., Peiro J. and Witte H. (2009). Job insecurity and well being: Moderation by Employability. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 10, 739-752.
- Salladavre, F., Hlaimi, B., and Wolff, F.C. (2011). How important is security in the choice of employment? Evidence from European countries. *Economic and Industrial Democracy*, 32, 349-567.
- Spector, P.E. (1999). Objective versus subjective approaches to the study of job stress. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 20, 737.

- Spector, P.E. (2006). *Overview of the Job-related Affective Well-being Scale (JAWS)*. Available from: <http://shell.cas.usf.edu/~pspector/scales/jawsover.html> [15 Nov 2012].
- Stander, M.W., and Rothmann, S. (2010). Psychological empowerment, job insecurity and employee engagement. *South African Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 36, 43-50.
- Sumola, K.W., and Sutton, C.D. (2002). Generational difference: Revisiting generational work values for the new millennium. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 23, 363-382.
- Twenge, J.M. (2010). A review of the empirical evidence on generational differences in work attitudes. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 25, 201-210.
- van Katwyk, P. T., Fox, S., Spector, P. E. and Kelloway, E. K. (2000). Using the Job Related Affective Well-Being Scale (JAWS) to investigate affective responses to work stressors. *Journal of occupational health psychology*, 5, 219-230.
- van Vuuren, T., Klandermans, B., and Hesselink, J. (2010). Employment status and job insecurity: On the subjective appraisal of an objective status. *Economic and industrial democracy*, 31, 557-577.
- Werk.nl, (2012). *Arbeidsrecht: Contracten voor onbepaalde tijd en bepaalde tijd*. UWV WERKbedrijf. Available from: https://www.werk.nl/werk_nl/werknemer/meer_weten/arbeidsrecht/contractenvoorebepaaldeenonbepaaldetijd >[01-10-2012].
- Windsor, J., Lester, S., Standifer, R., and Schultz, N. (2012). Actual versus perceived generational differences at work. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies*, 19, 341-354.

Appendix A

The following questions were used in the survey.

Demographics

Age	1	18-24
	2	25-29
	3	30-34
	4	35-39
	5	40-44
	6	45-49
	7	50-54
	8	55+

Gender	1	Male
	2	Female

Start date at X* YYYY

Currently employed at X*?	1	Yes
	2	No

Contract type	1	Full-time
	2	Part-time
	3	On-call

Position at X*	1	Intern
	2	Junior
	3	Intermediate
	4	Senior
	5	Associate
	6	Partner

Department	1	Creative
	2	Support

Most recent contract period at X*	1	Less than 3 months
	2	3-6 months
	3	7-12 months
	4	More than 12 months
	5	Indefinite

*Note; X denotes name of organization

Perceived Employment Security

How likely or unlikely is it that you will lose your job for some reason over the next twelve months (that is, your contract will not be renewed or it will end prior to the end date)?

- 1 Very likely
- 2 Quite likely
- 3 Not very likely
- 4 Not likely at all

Job-Related Affective Well-Being Scale (JAWS)

Below are a number of statements that describe different emotions that a job can make a person feel. Please indicate the amount to which any part of your job (e.g., the work, coworkers, supervisor, clients, pay) has made you feel that emotion in the past 30 days.

Scale: Never (1), Rarely (2), Sometimes (3), Quite often (4), Extremely often (5).

1. My job made me feel at ease.
2. My job made me angry.
3. My job made me annoyed.
4. My job made me feel anxious
5. My job made me feel bored.
6. My job made me cheerful.
7. My job made me feel calm.
8. My job made me feel confused.
9. My job made me feel content.
10. My job made me feel depressed.
11. My job made me feel disgusted
12. My job made me feel discouraged.
13. My job made me feel elated.
14. My job made me feel energetic.
15. My job made me feel excited.
16. My job made me feel ecstatic.
17. My job made me feel enthusiastic.
18. My job made me feel frightened.
19. My job made me feel frustrated.
20. My job made me feel furious.
21. My job made me feel gloomy.
22. My job made me feel fatigued.
23. My job made me feel happy.
24. My job made me feel intimidated.
25. My job made me feel inspired.
26. My job made me feel miserable.
27. My job made me feel pleased.

28. My job made me feel proud.
29. My job made me feel satisfied.
30. My job made me feel relaxed.

Regulatory Focus Strategies Scale (RFSS)

Please answer all questions as accurately as possible.

There are a number of different ways in which we can achieve things important to us or avoid things that we don't want. Rate your agreement or disagreement with each statement on five-point scales, from strongly disagree to strongly agree.

1. Being cautious is the best way to avoid failure.
2. If you keep worrying about mistakes, you will never achieve anything.
3. To avoid failure, one has to be careful.
4. To achieve something, you need to be optimistic
5. You have to take risks if you want to avoid failing.
6. To achieve something, it is most important to know all the potential obstacles.
7. To achieve something, you must be cautious.
8. To avoid failure, you have to be enthusiastic
9. Taking risks is essential for success.
10. If you want to avoid failing, the worst thing you can do is think about making mistakes.
11. To achieve something, one must try all possible ways of achieving it.
12. The worst thing you can do when trying to achieve a goal is to worry about making mistakes.
13. Being cautious is the best policy for success.
14. To avoid failing, it is important to keep in in mind all the potential obstacles.

Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES)

The following 17 statements are about how you feel at work. Please read each statement carefully and decide how often you ever feel this way about your job. Please indicate of each statement the alternative that best describes how frequently you feel that way.

Scale:	1	Never	never
	2	Almost never	a few times a year or less
	3	Rarely	once a month or less
	4	Sometimes	a few times a month
	5	Often	once a week
	6	Very often	a few times a week
	7	Always	everyday

For instance, if you have never or almost never had this feeling, circle the "1" (one) after the statement. If you have had always or almost always this feeling circle "4" (four).

1. At my work, I feel bursting with energy
2. I find the work that I do full of meaning and purpose
3. Time flies when I'm working
4. At my job, I feel strong and vigorous
5. I am enthusiastic about my job
6. When I am working, I forget everything else around me
7. My job inspires me
8. When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work
9. I feel happy when I am working intensely
10. I am proud of the work that I do
11. I am immersed in my work
12. I can continue working for very long periods at a time
13. To me, my job is challenging
14. I get carried away when I'm working
15. At my job, I am very resilient, mentally
16. It is difficult to detach myself from my job
17. At my work I always persevere, even when things do not go well

Appendix B

The following figures show the graphical interpretation of significant interactions between regulatory focus, age, perceived job security and the well-being subscales.

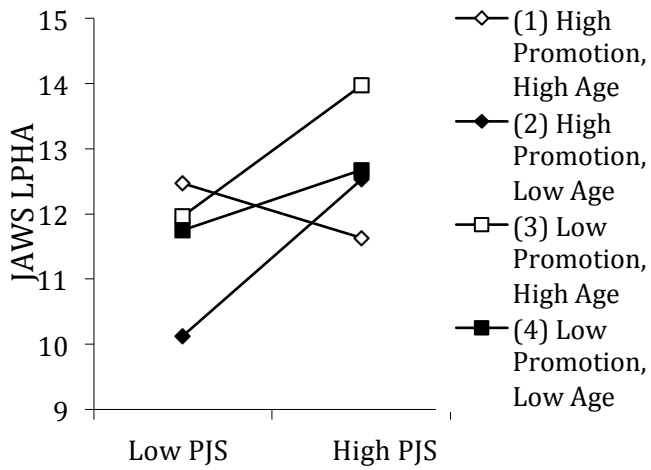


Figure 3.1. Three-way interaction of PJSxPromotionxAge on JAWS LPHA (Distress) scores.

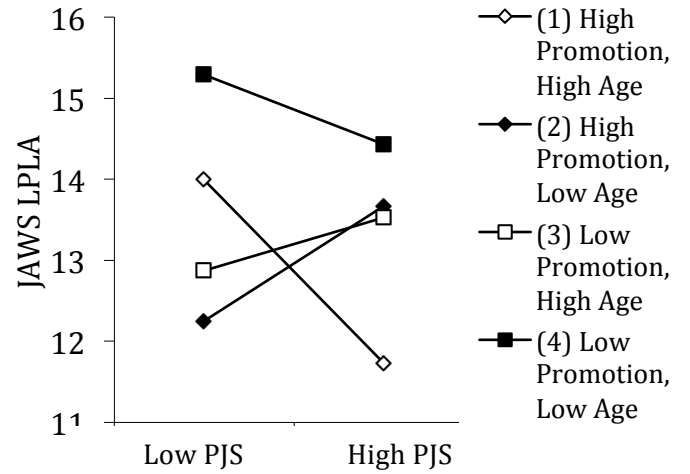


Figure 3.2. Three-way interaction of PJSxPromotionxAge on JAWS LPLA (Depression) scores.

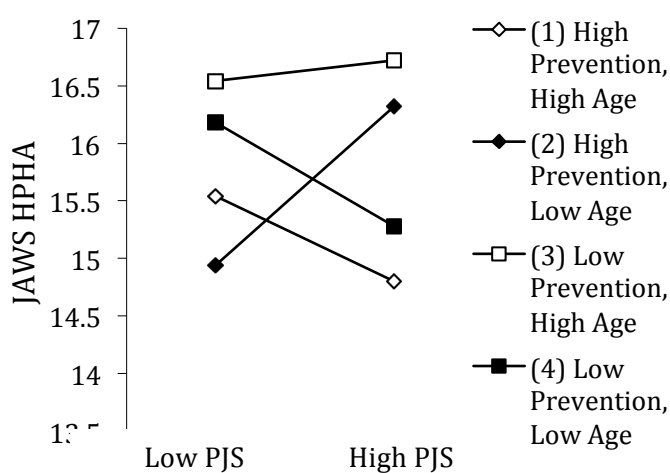


Figure 3.3. Three-way interaction of PJSxPreventionxAge on JAWS HPHA (Excitement) scores.

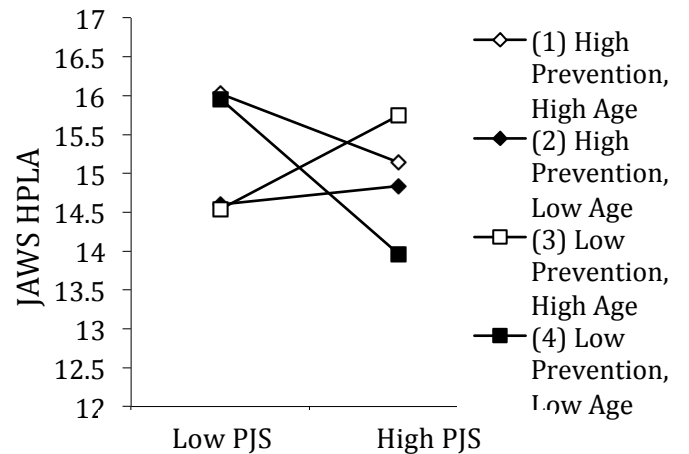


Figure 3.4. Three-way interaction of PJSxPreventionxAge on JAWS HPLA (Contentment) scores.

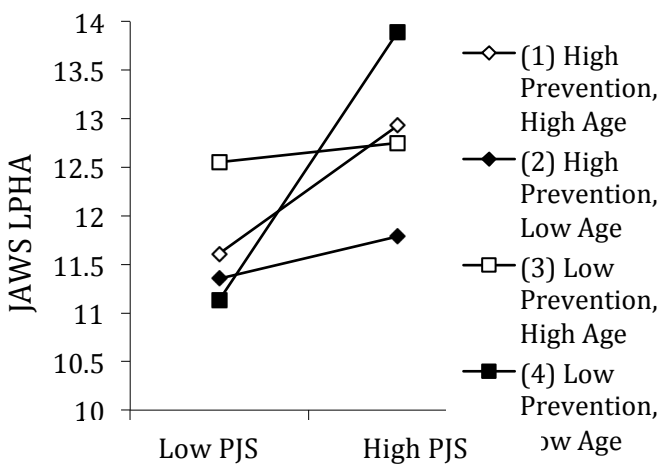


Figure 3.5. Three-way interaction of PJSxPreventionxAge on JAWS LPHA (Distress) scores.

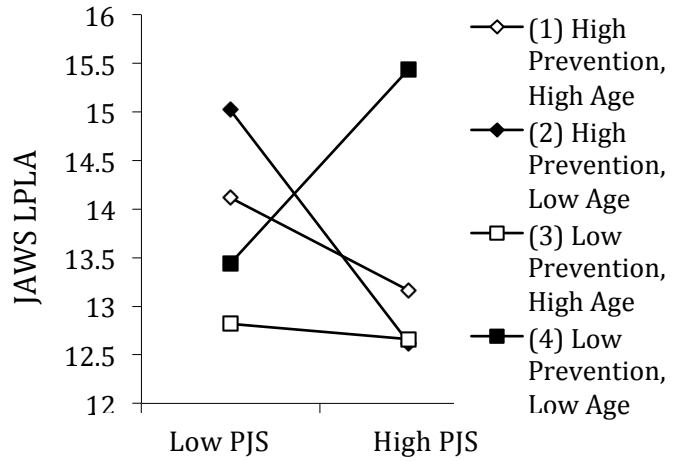


Figure 3.6. Three-way interaction of PJSxPreventionxAge on JAWS LPLA (Depression) scores.

In addition, the following figures show the graphical interpretation of the previously mentioned comparable significant interactions found between regulatory focus, age, perceived job security and engagement scores.

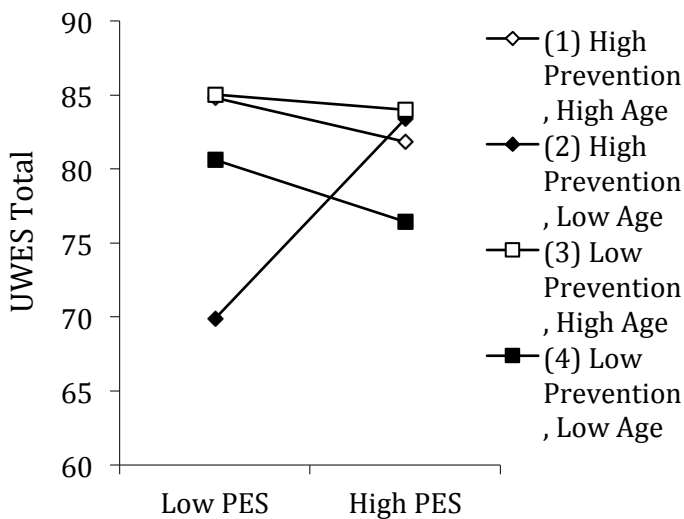


Figure 4.1. Three-way interaction of PJSxPreventionxAge on total engagement scores.

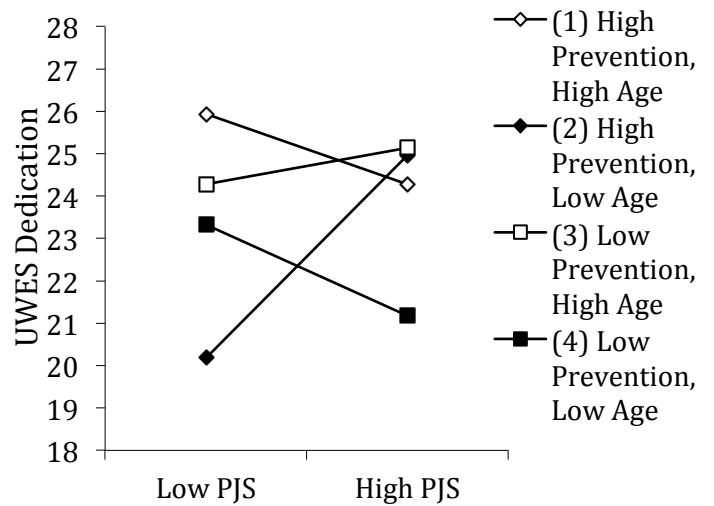


Figure 4.2. Three-way interaction of PJSxPreventionxAge on dedication scores.