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**The Relationship between Job Insecurity, Burnout,
Engagement, and Performance and the Moderating Role
of Regulatory Focus and Gender**

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Abstract

This cross-sectional study examined whether job insecurity was related to burnout, engagement, and performance at work. Furthermore, the moderating role of regulatory focus and gender was studied. Data were collected among 270 working adults in The Netherlands. Results were analysed using a multiple regression analysis and a Process moderation analysis. The findings indicated that high quantitative job insecurity is related to increased exhaustion and decreased engagement, whereas qualitative job insecurity is associated with decreased engagement and contextual performance. Furthermore, prevention focus moderated the relationship between job insecurity, engagement and performance, whereas gender moderated only performance. The present study could give insight in the work-related well-being of employees. Results suggest that further research is needed.

Keywords: job insecurity, burnout, engagement, performance, regulatory focus, gender

INTRODUCTION

In the past few decades globalisation has made a large impact on the labour market and nature of work. This is for example demonstrated in the emergence of new production systems (e.g., lean production), downsizing, outsourcing, and new occupations enabled by technological innovation (Landsbergis, Grzywacz, & LaMontagne, 2014). Organisations have to deal with this turbulent environment, where “timing is critical, technological change is rapid, and competitive pressures are unrelenting and difficult to predict” (Cummings & Worley, 2008, p. 535). Due to these ongoing economic fluctuations and regular organisational downsizings, it is impossible for companies to offer infinite permanent contracts (Keim, Landis, Pierce, & Earnest, 2014), which can result in an increase of temporary employment contracts (De Witte, 2005). An important consequence of these temporary contracts is the increasing job insecurity among employees (De Witte, 2005). Job insecurity is found to be related to a lowering in both mental and physical health of employees (for reviews see De Witte, 1999, 2005), and has implications for an organisation as well. High levels of job insecurity can result in a performance decrease (De Witte, 2000), lower commitment to the company, and distrust of company management (Ashford, Lee, & Bobko, 1989). Given the inevitability of job insecurity nowadays, it is important to understand the underlying factors in order to be able to cope with the harmful effects.

The purpose of the present study is to examine the relationship between job insecurity and burnout, work engagement and performance. Furthermore, the moderating role of regulatory focus and gender will be addressed. This research might give insight into individual factors underlying the effect of job insecurity on well-being and performance. The results of this study could give value to the existing knowledge about predicting work-related well-being of employees in organisations.

Definition and Conceptualisation of Job Insecurity

Job insecurity has been defined differently by several researchers. A general adopted view conceives job insecurity as a subjective concern of an individual about the continuity of the job in the future (De Witte, 1999; Van Vuuren, 1990). In the present research, job insecurity will be defined as “the perceived threat of job loss and the worries related to that threat” (De Witte, 2005, p. 1). This definition states that job insecurity is a subjective experience, which implies uncertainty about the future, and describes doubts about the continuation of the job. This means that a particular objective situation (e.g. downsizing a department) can be interpreted differently by employees.

Hellgren, Sverke and Isaksson (1999) distinguished quantitative from qualitative aspects of job insecurity. *Quantitative* job insecurity refers to concerns about the future existence of the job itself. *Qualitative* job insecurity refers to insecurity regarding the continued existence of valued aspects of the job, such as salary, working conditions, career opportunities, colleagues, and job content (Hellgren et al., 1999). In this research, both quantitative and qualitative job insecurity will be examined.

Consequences of Job Insecurity

Job insecurity has been defined as a work stressor in various theoretical models of work psychology (e.g. Siegrist, 1996; Warr, 1987). In his review, De Witte (2005) used the Vitamin model of Warr (1987) to explain the detrimental consequences of job insecurity. Warr's Vitamin model differentiates between nine components of work that can influence psychological well-being (Warr, 1987). The aspect 'environmental clarity' refers to predictability. When there is a lack of 'environmental clarity' (hence unpredictability), it has consequences for the well-being of an individual. Linking this to job insecurity: what will happen in the future is unclear for those concerned (De Witte, 1999), and could have implications for the well-being of an employee. A lack of the aspect 'control' (and therefore uncontrollability) is considered to play an important role in job insecurity (e.g. Dekker & Schaufeli, 1995; Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 1984). In conclusion, unpredictability and uncontrollability are two factors that are meaningful in explaining the stress component of job insecurity.

Another theory that can explain the lowering of well-being through job insecurity, is the model of latent deprivation developed by Jahoda (in De Witte, 1999). In this model it is explained that different needs are satisfied by working, such as obtaining an income, having social contacts, and developing individually and socially. The threat of unemployment means the frustration of those needs, and the loss of important resources. Therefore, job insecurity appears to be an unattractive prospect for the future with possible negative consequences for well-being (De Witte, 1999).

In this study burnout and work engagement are measured to represent well-being. Furthermore, performance of an individual will be taken into account.

Burnout. Burnout is defined as a prolonged response to chronic job stressors, and can be divided in three dimensions: exhaustion, cynicism, and inefficacy (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001). *Exhaustion* is the core component of burnout, and refers to feelings of being 'empty' and being depleted of one's emotional and physical resources. *Cynism* (or depersonalization) refers to a negative, cynical attitude towards various aspects of the job.

Lastly, *inefficacy* is characterized by feelings of incompetence and negative evaluations of the achievements at work (Maslach et al., 2001). In the current study, exhaustion will be used to measure burnout.

Already in 1995, Dekker and Schaufeli (1995) conducted a repeated measures study of job insecurity among almost hundred employees in a large Australian public transport organisation. The organisation was facing drastic organisational changes at the time of conducting research, hence they expected job insecurity among the employees. Support was found for the relationship between job insecurity and burnout. A more recent study of De Witte, Pienaar and De Cuyper (2016) investigated in their review study if there was causal evidence on the association between job insecurity and health and well-being. All nine studies on job burnout showed evidence for a causal relationship, suggesting that job insecurity increased exhaustion. Based on the cited research, the following hypothesis is formulated:

H1: Job insecurity is positively related to burnout.

Work Engagement. In contrast to burnout, engagement is a positive construct. Engagement is defined as a “positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigour, dedication, and absorption” (Schaufeli, Salanova, González-Romá, & Bakker, 2002, p. 74). Engagement refers to a persistent affective-cognitive state that is not concentrated on any particular individual, behaviour, object, or event. *Vigour* is defined by high levels of energy and mental resilience while working, willingness to invest effort, and persistence in reaching work goals. *Dedication* refers to the feeling of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration, challenge, and pride. Lastly, *absorption* is characterized by being fully concentrated and engaged in one’s work and losing sense of time (Schaufeli et al., 2002).

Research about the relation between job insecurity and work engagement is not as extensive as the research on burnout, but a number of interesting studies have been done. For example, the study of Bosman, Rothmann, and Buitendach (2005) investigated the relationship between job insecurity, affectivity, burnout, and work engagement of almost three hundred employees in a government organisation. With their survey study, they found that cognitive job insecurity had a significant negative correlation with engagement, which suggested that higher levels of cognitive job insecurity are associated with lower levels of engagement. Furthermore, Stander and Rothman (2010) examined the relationship between psychological empowerment, job insecurity and employee engagement. The sample consisted

of 442 governmental employees and employees from a manufacturing company. They found a main effect between affective job insecurity and psychological empowerment and employee engagement. Furthermore, psychological empowerment interacted with affective job insecurity to affect employee engagement. Based on the cited research, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H2: Job insecurity is negatively related to work engagement.

Work performance. A typical reflection of work related behaviour is performance (Sverke, Hellgren, & Näswall, 2002). Performance can be divided into task and contextual performance. Formal job descriptions describe activities that contribute to *task performance* (Goodman & Syvanteck, 1999). *Contextual performance* incorporates such activities as doing actions that are not included in the job description, helping colleagues, supporting organisational objectives or giving extra effort to complete the tasks (Goodman & Syvanteck, 1999). Both task and contextual performance will be examined in this study.

High levels of job insecurity are generally assumed to result in deteriorated performance and a tendency to leave the organization. These studies mostly used a self-rate measurement of performance to result in significant results (Sverke et al., 2002). In their meta-analysis, Sverke et al. (2002) included 72 studies to investigate how job insecurity relates to its supposed outcomes, including performance. Twelve of these studies included performance, and after analysis it was concluded that job insecurity was not significantly related to performance. Explanations could be that job insecurity leads to improved performance in some contexts (e.g., performance as the criterion for layoff decisions), whereas in other contexts (e.g., tenure as the criterion) performance is impaired (Sverke et al., 2002). Cheng and Chan (2008) basically replicated the study of Sverke et al. (2002), but with an updated methodological approach and a larger database. Results showed that job insecurity was negatively related to work performance. Hence, it is expected that this research will show a negative relation between job insecurity and work performance. Based on the reasoning above, the third hypothesis of this study was formulated as follows:

H3: Job insecurity is negatively related to work performance.

The Moderating Effects of Regulatory Focus and Gender

Regulatory focus. Considering the disadvantages of job insecurity, it is also important to take individual factors into account. An individual factor that may determine individuals' response to job insecurity is their regulatory focus. Regulatory focus is a motivational principle that describes how individuals differ in pursuing their goals (Higgins, 1997). According to Higgins (1997, p. 2), regulatory focus may have a "major impact on people's feelings, thoughts, and actions". This theory distinguishes between two types of self-regulation: a *promotion focus* or a *prevention focus*. Promotion focus indicates the motivation of an individual for advancement, growth, and accomplishment (Higgins, 1997). Individuals with a promotion focus think more globally, enjoy trying new things, and focus mainly on positive outcomes (Sassenberg & Scholl, 2013). Prevention focus refers to a concern for protection, safety, and responsibility (Higgins, 1997). Individuals with a prevention focus are mainly focused on negative outcomes, try to avoid making mistakes, and follow the rules. Regulatory focus may vary between situations and persons (Sassenberg & Scholl, 2013).

In their longitudinal study, Sassenberg and Scholl (2013) examined how regulatory focus was related to job-related values across time. The value of having security, power, and a potential for self-direction at work were measured. The sample consisted of 103 employees at the beginning of their occupational careers. Results showed that over time, individuals with a stronger promotion focus valued having power. Furthermore, their prediction that individuals with a strong prevention focus would value security in their job, was also confirmed.

The meta-analysis of Lanaj, Chang and Johnson (2012) integrated regulatory focus theory with personality research in the context of work. Among other things, they found that promotion focus was positively related to task performance, OCB, and innovative performance. Unlike their expectations, prevention focus was not related to task performance.

It is assumed that individuals with a prevention focus will be affected more by job insecurity, because of their need for protection and safety. As stated before, promotion focused individuals focus on advancement and growth, and particularly concentrate on positive outcomes. This study is mainly focused on the negative consequences of job insecurity. Therefore, no hypothesis will be formulated for promotion focus. Based on the research findings mentioned, it is proposed that:

H4: Regulatory focus will moderate the effect of job insecurity on psychological well-being and work performance, in the sense that the association between job insecurity

and burnout, engagement, and performance will be stronger for individuals with a high (vs. low) prevention focus.

Gender. Gender has not been examined extensively in relation to job insecurity. Most of the studies have looked at the work population as a whole and made no distinction between men and women (Rosenblatt, Talmud, & Ruvio, 1999). Hartley, Jacobson, Klandermans, and Van Vuuren (1991, p. 202, cited in Rosenblatt et al., 1999) stated that “The pattern of full-time employment without interruption is predominantly a male pattern and, for example, it could be that males as a group react to and cope with job insecurity differently from women”.

Due to the ongoing global problem of gender inequality at work, it remains an issue that requires attention. Women are still underpaid compared to male workers, despite having the same capacities and skills. They have higher temporary employment rates than men, which could indicate that they are more likely to experience job insecurity (Menéndez, Benach, Muntaner, Amable, & O'Campo, 2007). Another interesting theory related to gender is the role theory (De Goede & Maassen, 1988). For (married) man, earning money for their family is one of the most important things in life, while women most of the time have an alternative role as well (taking care of the household and/or the children). Hence, unemployment can be less distressing for women (De Witte, 1999). Furthermore, the longitudinal study of Ferrie, Shipley, Marmot, Stansfeld, and Smith (1995) showed less deterioration in self-reported health among insecure women than among insecure men. This could indicate that job insecurity is less distressing for women than men.

The male breadwinner model (Lewis, 2001) can be explained as a set of assumptions about male and female contributions at the household level, where men have the primary responsibility to earn the money and women take care of the children and elderly. The model assumed “full male employment and stable families in which women would be provided for largely via their husbands’ earnings and social contributions” (Lewis, 2001, p. 153). Hence, the male breadwinner model indicates that men would experience higher responsibility to provide for their family, and this could possibly result in greater susceptibility to job insecurity.

Based on the research findings, it is expected that job insecurity will have a greater impact on men than women. This results in the following assumption:

H5: Gender will moderate the effect of job insecurity on well-being and work performance, in the sense that the association between job insecurity and the outcome variables will be stronger for men than women.

Present Research

The present research investigated whether job insecurity was related to burnout, work engagement and work performance. Additionally, it was tested if regulatory focus and gender moderated these relationships. The results could provide insight on individual level and could have implications for predicting work-related well-being of employees in organisations. In Figure 1, the proposed research model is displayed.

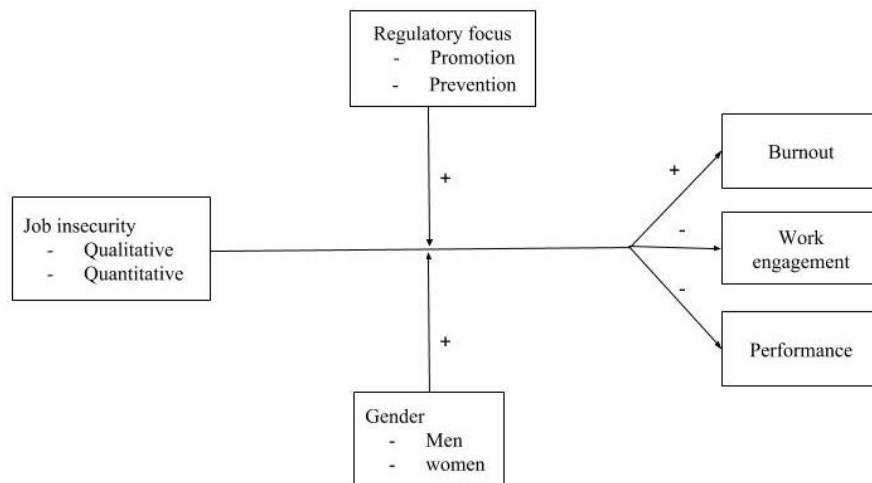


Figure 1. Proposed model of the relationships between job insecurity and the outcome variables burnout, work engagement and work performance, and the moderating roles of regulatory focus and gender on this relationship.

METHOD

Participants and Procedure

Using a cross-sectional survey design, data were collected among working adults in The Netherlands. Participants were approached online via channels such as LinkedIn. On April 26 2018, a message with the aim of the study, an informed consent, and a link that directed to the survey was distributed. The message explained the purpose of the study and emphasized the anonymity and confidentiality of the results. Reminders of the survey were

placed frequently on the different platforms and via e-mail. During a period of one month data were collected.

A total of 453 individuals responded to the survey. 183 people were excluded because they did not complete the questionnaire or were not working at the moment. The final sample consisted of 270 participants, with a total of 199 women (73,7%) and 71 men (26,3%). Participants were 18 to 65 years old, with a mean age of X ($M_{\text{age}} = 40.63$, $SD = 13.08$). Other demographics and employment information are shown in Table 1.

Table 1

Educational level, sort of contract, and amount of freelancers of the research participants.

Category	Options	% of the participants
Educational level	MAVO, LBO, VMBO	3.7
	HAVO, MBO	18.9
	VWO	2.6
	Higher Vocational Education	33.0
	University Degree	39.3
	Other	2.6
Sort of contract	Temporary contract	26.3
	Permanent contract	59.6
	Other	14.1
Freelancer	Yes	12.2
	No	87.8

Measures

Biographical information and general work-related information was gathered. The following scales were used, among others.

Regulatory focus. To measure regulatory focus, the Work Regulatory Focus Measure by Neubert et al. (2008) was used. The 18-item scale was rated on a 6-point Likertscale from 1 (“strongly disagree”) to 6 (“strongly agree”). An example of an item for prevention focus is: “I concentrate on completing my work tasks correctly to increase my job security”. An example of an item for promotion focus is: “I take chances at work to maximize my goals for

advancement”. Cronbach’s α for the promotion scale was $\alpha = 0.83$ and for prevention $\alpha = 0.83$. A Dutch translation of the WRFM was used (Petrou, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2018).

Job Insecurity Scale. The amount of perceived job insecurity was measured. To measure *quantitative* job insecurity the Job Insecurity Scale (JIS) developed by De Witte (2000) was used. It consisted of four items: “Chances are, I will soon lose my job”, “I am sure I can keep my job” (reverse coded), “I feel insecure about the future of my job”, and “I think I might lose my job in the near future”. Respondents were asked to rate these items on a 5-point Likert type scale, ranging from 1 (“strongly disagree”) to 5 (“strongly agree”). Cronbach’s α was 0.86. The *qualitative* dimension of job insecurity was operationalized through a probabilistic measurement of job insecurity (Handaya & De Witte, 2007). For eleven items, the respondents had to indicate the chance that the assessed aspect would improve or worsen in the future (5-point scale ranging from 1= “strongly deteriorate” to 5 = “strongly improve”). These eleven items referred to different aspects of the work situation. For example, the extent to which the participants expect a change in the salary, the extent to which they can use their expertise in the work, the content of the job, the interaction with colleagues, and promotion opportunities were tested. Cronbach’s α was 0.79.

Work engagement. Work engagement was assessed with the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (Schaufeli, Bakker, & Salanova, 2006). The long version consisting of seventeen items was used. The scale measures absorption ($\alpha = 0.83$), vigour ($\alpha = 0.88$) and dedication ($\alpha = 0.93$) with three items for each dimension. Cronbach’s α for the total work engagement scale was 0.95. Examples of items are “When I am working, I forget everything else around me” (absorption), “At my job, I feel strong and vigorous” (vigour) and “I am enthusiastic about my job” (dedication). The items were rated on a 7-point Likertscale from 0 (“never”) to 6 (“always”).

Burnout. The Utrecht Burnout Scale (UBOS) by Schaufeli and Van Dierendonck (2000) was used to measure the amount of burnout experienced by the employee. The UBOS consists of fifteen items. The scale measures exhaustion (e.g., “I feel mentally exhausted because of my work”; $\alpha = .87$), cynism (e.g., “I doubt the significance of my work”; $\alpha = .73$), and efficacy (e.g., “I can effectively solve the problems that arise in my work”; $\alpha = .73$). The items were rated on a 7-pointscale¹ from 0 (“never”) to 6 (“every day”). Cronbach’s α of the overall burnout scale was 0.82.

Work performance. The Job Performance Scale of Goodman and Svyantek (1999) was used to measure employees' performance. It measured both task (e.g., "You achieve the goals of your function; $\alpha = .80$) and contextual performance (e.g., "You help other colleagues with their work when they have been absent"; $\alpha = .82$). The scale consisted of 16 items and respondents were asked to rate these items on a 5-point Likert scale from 1 ("totally disagree") to 5 ("totally agree"). Cronbach's α of the overall performance scale was 0.85.

Statistical analysis

With the aid of *Statistical Program for Social Sciences (SPSS)* version 24, data were analysed. Prior to analyses, assumptions regarding outliers, homoscedasticity, multicollinearity and linearity were checked and found to be supported for all the variables. Then, descriptives and intercorrelations between the study variables were examined. Multiple regression analyses were conducted to test the hypotheses. For testing moderation effects, the PROCESS macro for moderation (Hayes, 2017) was used.

RESULTS

Preliminary Analyses

Table 1 shows the means (M), standard deviations (SD), and the inter-correlations (r) of the variables. Quantitative and qualitative job insecurity did not correlate with each other, which was not as expected. Quantitative job insecurity correlated positively with prevention focus and exhaustion. It correlated negatively with work engagement. Furthermore, qualitative job insecurity was negatively correlated with promotion and prevention focus, engagement, and contextual performance. A positive significant correlation was found for gender with qualitative job insecurity, prevention focus, and exhaustion.

Regression Analyses Job Insecurity

Multiple regression analysis were conducted to examine the influence of quantitative and qualitative job insecurity on exhaustion, engagement, task- and contextual performance. Effects of moderators prevention focus, promotion focus, and gender were also examined. The results are displayed in Table 2.

$H1$ predicted that job insecurity would be negatively related to burnout. The main effects of job insecurity on exhaustion were jointly significant for 7.9% of the variance ($F(5,258) = 4.43, p < .01$). When comparing qualitative and quantitative job insecurity, only quantitative job insecurity was found to be a significant predictor of exhaustion ($\beta = .23, p < .01$). Hence, $H1$ is partly confirmed.

In *H2* it was expected that job insecurity would be negatively related to engagement. The main effects of job insecurity on burnout were jointly significant for 14.9% of the variance ($F(5,258) = 9.03, p < .01$). Both quantitative job insecurity ($\beta = -.20, p < .01$) and qualitative job insecurity ($\beta = -.20, p < .01$) were significant predictors for engagement. Hence, *H2* is confirmed for quantitative and qualitative job insecurity.

H3 predicted that job insecurity would be negatively related to work performance. The main effects of job insecurity on task performance were jointly significant for 4.5% of the total variance ($F(5,257) = 2.45, p = .04$). For contextual performance, the main effects were jointly significant for 10.1% of the total variance ($F(5,257) = 5.78, p < .01$). The expected negative relation with task performance was not found for quantitative and qualitative job insecurity. For qualitative job insecurity, a significant relationship was found for contextual performance ($\beta = -.18, p < .01$). Hence, *H3* was partly confirmed for contextual performance. For task performance, *H3* was rejected.

Table 1: Correlations, means and standard deviations of all variables.

	M	SD	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Quantitative job insecurity	2.44	0.63	.005	.03	.21**	-.16**	.23**	.01	-.10	.06
2. Qualitative job insecurity	3.32	0.45		-.37**	-.15*	-.27**	.09	-.06	-.22**	.14*
3. Promotion focus	4.16	0.89			.21**	.25**	-.08	.17**	.20**	-.11
4. Prevention focus	4.29	0.85				.17**	.03	.16**	.04	.23**
5. Engagement	3.22	1.01					-.51**	.34**	.32**	.05
6. Exhaustion	0.90	1.01						-.17**	-.10	.15*
7. Task performance	4.09	0.49							.47**	.08
8. Contextual performance	4.03	0.62								.10
9. Gender	1.74	0.44								

Note: ** significant when $p < .01$, * significant when $p < .05$.

Table 2. Unstandardised (B) and standardised (β) regression coefficients, and standard error (SE) for predictors of job insecurity.

	<u>Exhaustion</u>			<u>Engagement</u>			<u>Task performance</u>			<u>Contextual performance</u>		
	B	SE	β	B	SE	β	B	SE	β	B	SE	β
Quantitative job insecurity	.43	.11	.23**	-.33	.10	-.20**	-.02	.05	-.03	-.10	.06	-.11
Qualitative job insecurity	.14	.17	.06	-.49	.15	-.20**	-.01	.07	-.01	-.25	.09	-.18**
Prevention focus	-.05	.09	-.04	.16	.08	.13*	.07	.04	.12	-.03	.05	-.04
Promotion focus	-.05	.09	-.04	.19	.08	.16*	.07	.04	.13*	.12	.04	.18**
Gender	.34	.178	.13*	.18	.15	.07	.08	.07	.07	.20	.09	.14*

Note: ** significant when $p < .01$, * significant when $p < .05$

When analysing the direct effects of the moderating variables on the predictors of job insecurity, significant relationships were found. Prevention focus had a positive relationship with engagement ($\beta = .13, p < .05$). Promotion focus was positively related to engagement ($\beta = .16, p < .05$), task performance ($\beta = .13, p < .05$), and contextual performance ($\beta = .18, p < .01$). Lastly, gender was positively related to exhaustion ($\beta = .13, p < .05$), which indicated that women score higher on exhaustion than men. Furthermore, gender was positively related to contextual performance ($\beta = .14, p < .05$), which indicated that women score higher on contextual performance than men.

Moderation analyses

Moderation analyses were conducted to assess the moderating effect of regulatory focus and gender on the relation between job insecurity and burnout, engagement, and performance. The PROCESS-Macro Model 1 of Hayes (2017) was used.

Moderating role of regulatory focus. In *H4* it was expected that regulatory focus would moderate the effect of job insecurity on burnout, engagement, and work performance: prevention focus would strengthen the negative relationship between job insecurity and burnout, engagement, and work performance.

First, moderation analyses had been conducted for exhaustion. First, the analysis was conducted for quantitative job insecurity. A significant interaction was found for qualitative job insecurity and promotion focus on exhaustion ($\beta = -.41, R^2\text{-change} = .02, F(1,260) = 4.31, p < .05$) (Figure 1). This interaction showed that individuals with a high promotion focus experience less exhaustion with increasing levels of qualitative job security, whereas individuals with a low promotion focus experience more exhaustion with increasing levels of qualitative job insecurity. No significant interaction effects were found for the relationship between quantitative job insecurity and exhaustion, with prevention focus as a moderator ($\beta = -.18, p = .18$), or promotion focus as a moderator ($\beta = -.13, p = .31$). No significant interaction effect was found for the relationship between qualitative job insecurity and exhaustion, with prevention focus as a moderator ($\beta = -.13, p = .53$).

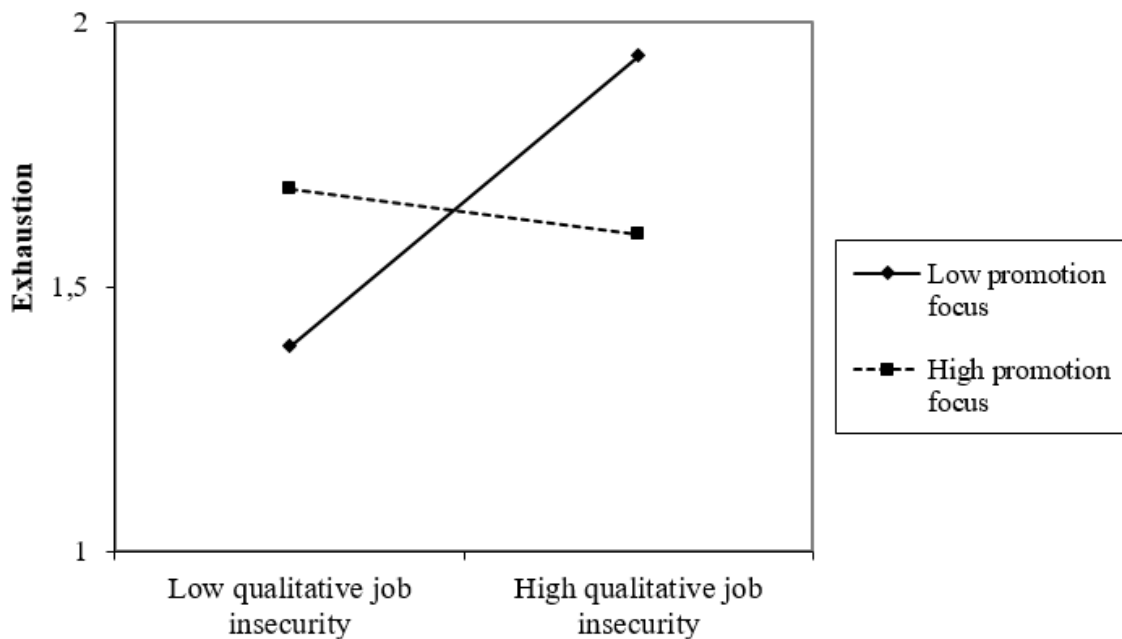


Figure 1. Interaction effect between qualitative job insecurity and promotion focus on exhaustion.

Second, a moderation analysis was conducted for the relationship between quantitative job insecurity and engagement, with prevention focus as a moderator. The interaction effect of quantitative job insecurity and prevention focus on engagement was significant ($\beta = .34$, R^2 -change = .03, $F(1,266) = 7.77$, $p < .01$). This interaction showed that individuals with a high prevention focus would not experience a distinct decrease in engagement with increasing levels of quantitative job insecurity, whereas individuals with a low prevention focus experienced less engagement with increasing levels of quantitative job insecurity (Figure 2). Furthermore, a significant interaction was found for the relationship between quantitative job insecurity, engagement and promotion focus ($\beta = .25$, R^2 -change = .02, $F(1,266) = 5.24$, $p < .05$). This interaction showed that individuals with a high promotion focus would not experience a distinct decrease in engagement with increasing levels of job insecurity, whereas individuals with a low promotion focus experienced less engagement with increasing levels of quantitative job insecurity (Figure 3). No significant interaction effects were found for the relationship between qualitative job insecurity and engagement, with prevention focus as a moderator ($\beta = -.26$, $p = .15$), or promotion focus as a moderator ($\beta = -.11$, $p = .52$).

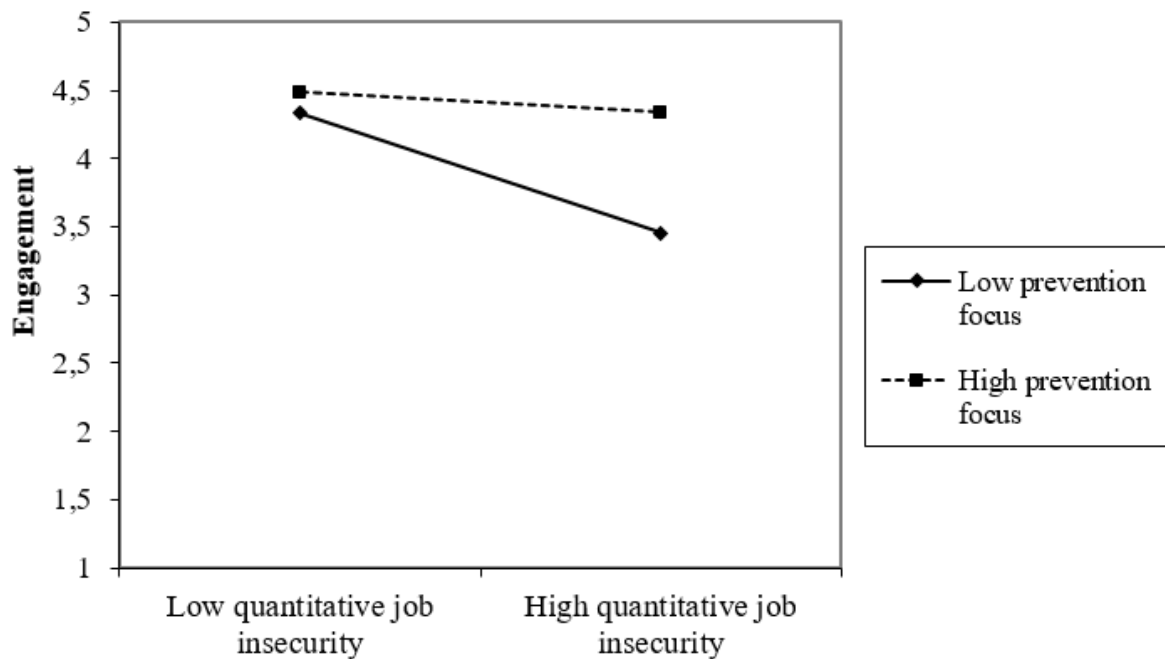


Figure 2. Interaction effect between quantitative job insecurity and prevention focus on work engagement.

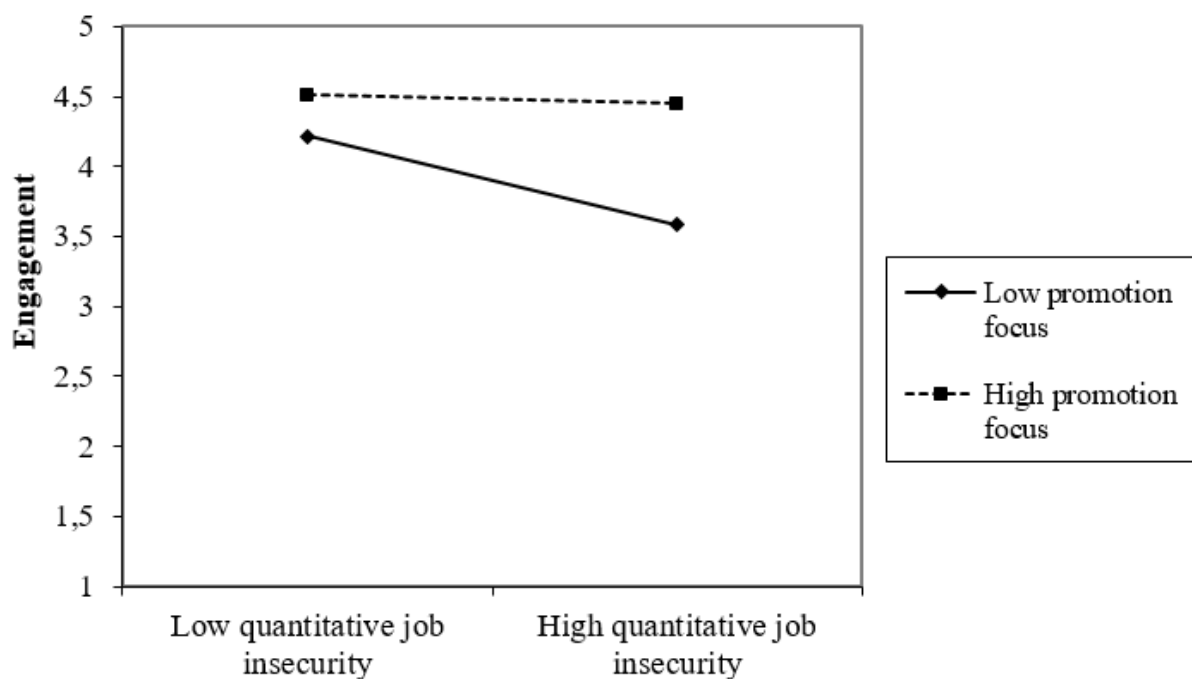


Figure 3. Interaction effect between quantitative job insecurity and promotion focus on work engagement.

Third, moderation analyses had been conducted for work performance. A significant interaction was found for the relationship between qualitative job insecurity and contextual performance with prevention focus as a moderator ($\beta = -.25$, R^2 -change = .02, $F(1,259) = 5.73$, $p < .05$). This interaction shows that individuals with a high prevention would demonstrate less contextual performance with increasing levels of qualitative job insecurity, whereas individuals with a low prevention focus would demonstrate hardly a difference in contextual performance with increasing levels of qualitative job insecurity (Figure 4). No significant interaction effects were found for the relationship between quantitative job insecurity and contextual performance, with prevention focus as a moderator ($\beta = .12$, $p = .10$), or with promotion focus ($\beta = .10$, $p = .12$). No significant interaction effect was found for the relationship between qualitative job insecurity and contextual performance, with promotion focus as a moderator ($\beta = -.03$, $p = .80$).

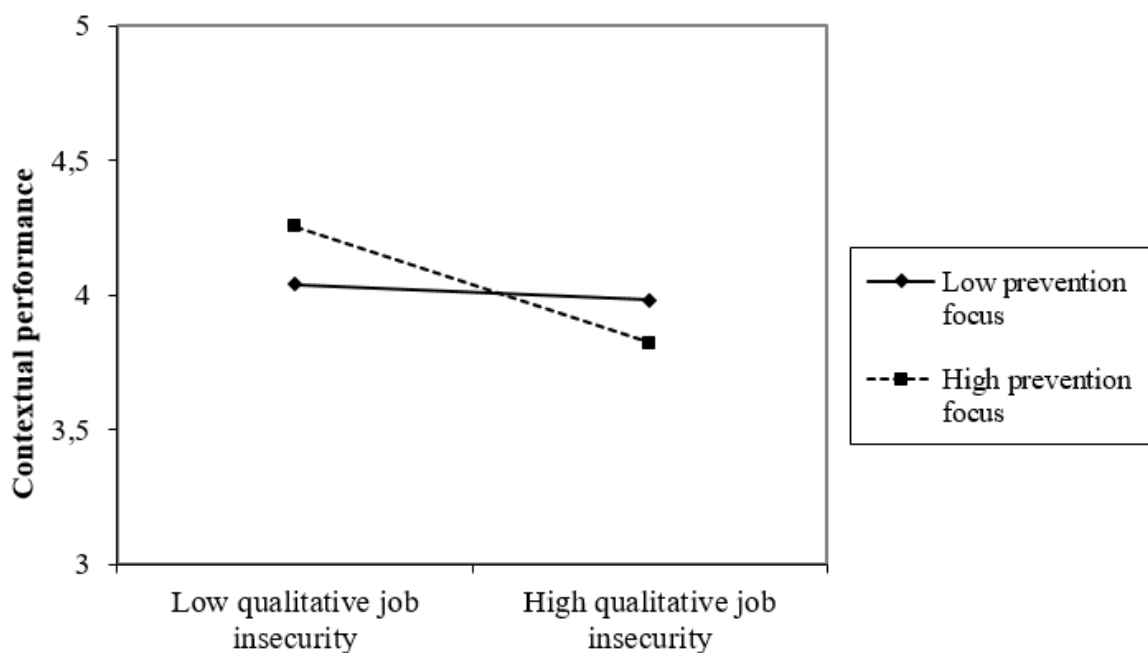


Figure 4. Interaction effect between qualitative job insecurity and prevention focus on contextual performance.

Then, analyses had been conducted for task performance. For qualitative job insecurity, for both promotion focus ($\beta = -.22$, R^2 -change = .03, $F(1,259) = 7.29$, $p < .01$) and prevention focus ($\beta = -.20$, R^2 -change = .02, $F(1,259) = 5.54$, $p < .05$) the interaction was significant (Figure 5 and 6). These interactions showed that individuals with a high prevention or promotion focus who experience high qualitative job insecurity would demonstrate less

task performance, whereas individuals with a low prevention or promotion focus would demonstrate more task performance. No significant interaction effects were found for the relationship between quantitative job insecurity and task performance, with prevention focus as a moderator ($\beta = .09, p = .11$), or with promotion focus as a moderator ($\beta = .02, p = .66$).

Concluding, *H4* is partly confirmed. *H4* is confirmed for qualitative job insecurity on task and contextual performance. Against expectation, significant interactions were found between with qualitative job insecurity and exhaustion and task performance, with promotion focus as a moderator. Furthermore, the interaction between quantitative job insecurity and engagement with promotion as a moderator was also significant, against expectation.

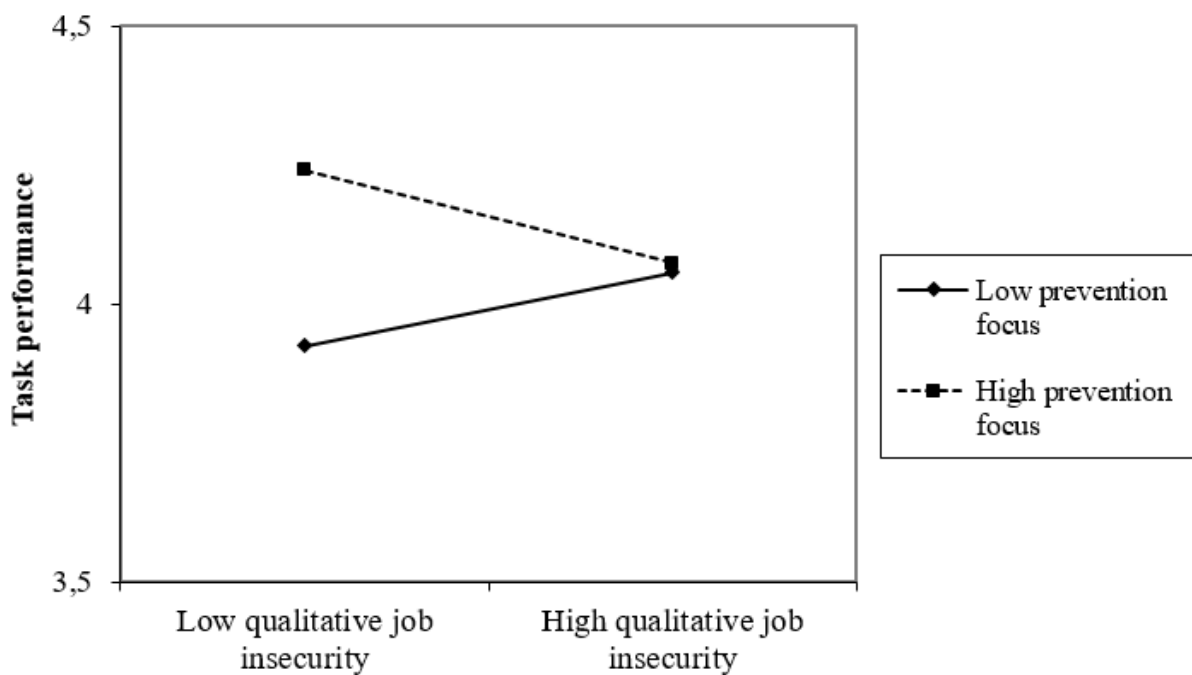


Figure 5. Interaction effect between qualitative job insecurity and prevention focus on task performance.

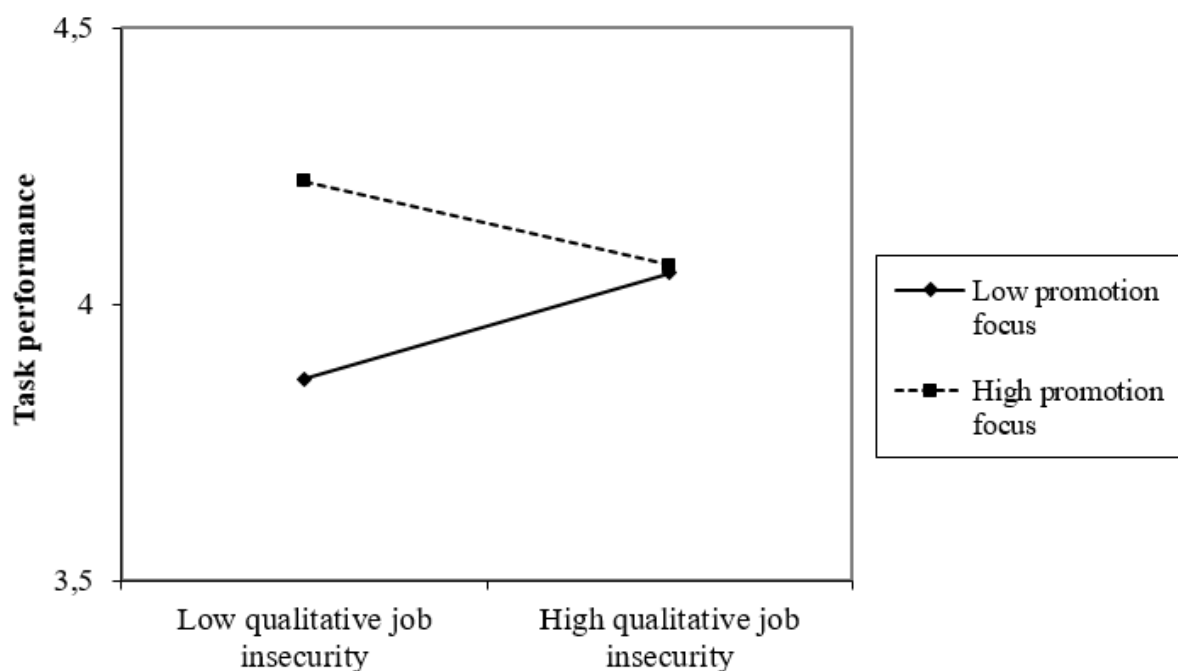


Figure 6. Interaction effect between qualitative job insecurity and promotion focus on task performance.

Moderating role of gender. *H6* predicted that the relationship between job insecurity and burnout, work engagement, and performance would be moderated by gender, in the sense that the association between job insecurity and burnout, work engagement, and performance would be stronger for men than women. First, a moderation analysis has been conducted for exhaustion. No significant interaction effects were found for the relationship between quantitative job insecurity and exhaustion ($\beta = -.31, p = .22$), or with qualitative job insecurity ($\beta = .41, p = .28$) with gender as a moderator. No significant interaction effects were found for the relationship between quantitative job insecurity and engagement ($\beta = .43, p = .07$), or with qualitative job insecurity ($\beta = -.52, p = .12$) and gender as a moderator. A significant interaction effect was found for the relationship between quantitative job insecurity and task performance, with gender as a moderator ($\beta = .24, R^2\text{-change} = .02, F(1,265) = 4.72, p < .05$). This interaction shows that men demonstrate less task performance with increasing levels of quantitative job insecurity, whereas women demonstrate more task performance with increasing levels of quantitative job insecurity (Figure 7). No interaction effect was found for qualitative job insecurity ($\beta = -.04, p = .80$). Lastly, analyses had been conducted for contextual performance. A significant interaction effect was found for the relationship between quantitative job insecurity and contextual performance, with gender as a moderator

($\beta = .33$, R^2 -change = .02, $F(1,265) = 5.62$, $p < .05$). This interaction shows that men demonstrate less contextual performance with increasing levels of quantitative job insecurity, whereas women demonstrate more contextual performance with increasing levels of quantitative job insecurity (Figure 8). No interaction effect was found for qualitative job insecurity with gender as a moderator ($\beta = -.15$, $p = .43$). Hence, *H6* was partly confirmed, only for quantitative job insecurity on task and contextual performance.

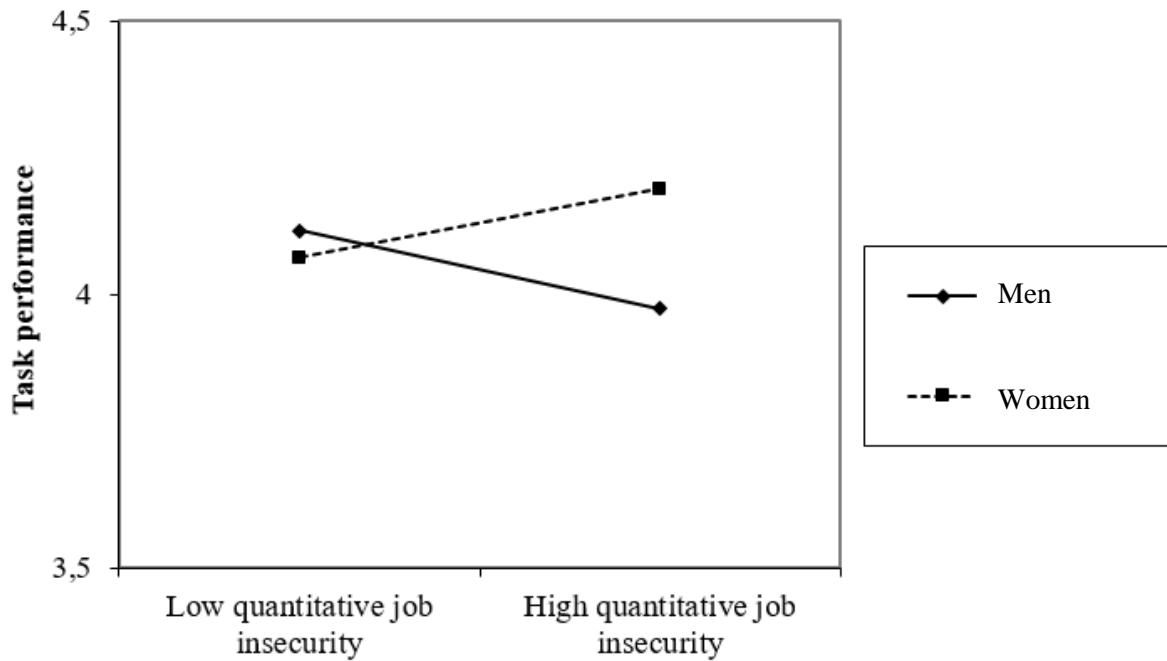


Figure 7. Interaction effect between quantitative job insecurity (independent variable) and gender (moderating variable) on task performance.

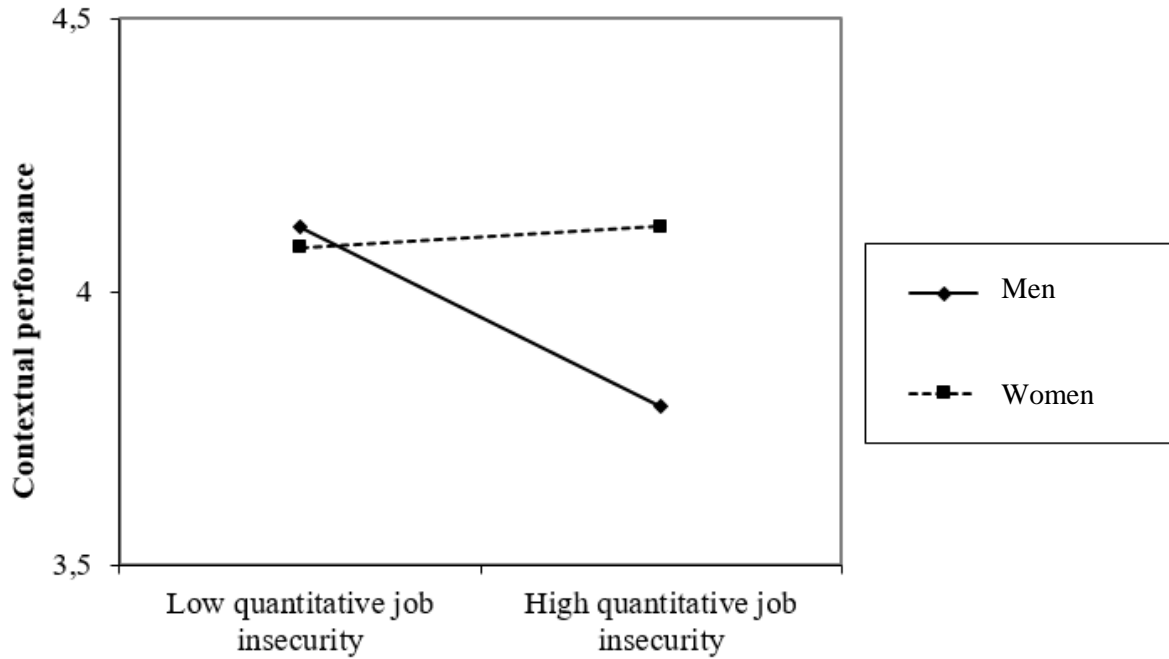


Figure 8. Interaction effect between quantitative job insecurity (independent variable) and gender (moderating variable) on contextual performance.

DISCUSSION

The aim of the present study was to examine whether job insecurity was related to burnout, work engagement, and performance. Furthermore, the moderating role of regulatory focus and gender on the relationships between job insecurity and the outcome variables was studied. The associations were tested in a sample of 270 working individuals in The Netherlands. In the following section, the empirical findings will be discussed.

Job Insecurity, Burnout, Engagement and Performance

First, it was expected that job insecurity would be positively related to burnout. The results from the analysis partly confirmed these expectations. Only quantitative job insecurity was significantly related to burnout, qualitative job insecurity was not related. This means that individuals who score high on quantitative job insecurity are more likely to experience burnout. This is in line with the study of Dekker and Schaufeli (1995), who stated that quantitative job insecurity contributes to feelings of exhaustion and burnout. According to Hellgren et al. (1999), quantitative job insecurity is related to stress symptoms, while qualitative job insecurity is mainly related to attitudinal outcomes, such as job dissatisfaction. This could be an explanation that in the present study only quantitative job insecurity was related to burnout. Even though the results were as expected, the variance explained by this

model is relatively small (around 8%). This could indicate that there are other factors that induce burnout.

In line with the prediction, job insecurity was negatively related to engagement. The results confirmed this expectation. Both quantitative and qualitative job insecurity were associated with engagement. This finding is in line with previous studies (Bosman et al., 2005; Stander & Rothman, 2010) and implies that the subjective experience of an individual with doubts about the continuation of the job and insecurity regarding the continued existence of valued aspects of the job, are relevant factors of the amount of engagement at work. The association was the strongest for qualitative job insecurity. This indicates that concerns about the aspects of the job, such as working conditions and contact with colleagues, are most important for an engagement decrease.

It was predicted that job insecurity would be negatively related to performance. The results partly confirmed this expectation. Results showed that only qualitative job insecurity was significantly related to performance. More specifically, qualitative job insecurity was related with decreased contextual performance. As described earlier, qualitative job insecurity describes perceived threats to important job features, including contact with colleagues (Hellgren et al., 1999). There are more social aspects underlying qualitative job insecurity. Contextual performance incorporates such social activities, hence it can be explained why qualitative job insecurity is related to contextual performance. Job insecurity was not related to task performance. An explanation could be that job insecurity leads to improved performance in some context, whereas in other contexts performance is impaired (Sverke et al., 2002).

The Moderating Role of Regulatory Focus

Furthermore, it was predicted that regulatory would moderate the relationship between job insecurity and burnout, engagement, and performance. Regulatory focus, in particular prevention focus, was proposed to strengthen the association between job insecurity and burnout, engagement, and performance.

Prevention focus. For the relationship between job insecurity, burnout and engagement, the expectation that prevention focus would moderate the relationship was not confirmed.

For the relationship between job insecurity and engagement, the expectation was not confirmed. Prevention focus did moderate the relationship between quantitative job insecurity and engagement. However, it was expected that individuals with a high prevention focus would moderate the relationship and not individuals with a low prevention focus.

For the relationship between job insecurity and performance, the expectation was partly confirmed. No relationships were found between quantitative job insecurity and performance. Qualitative job insecurity was related to both task and contextual performance and moderated by prevention focus. This means that for individuals who experience high qualitative job insecurity, a high prevention focus was related to a lowering of performance. This is in line with earlier research (Sverke et al., 2002).

Concluding, the prediction that regulatory focus would moderate the relationship between job insecurity and burnout, engagement, and performance is only confirmed for qualitative job insecurity on task and contextual performance.

Promotion focus. The relationship between qualitative job insecurity and burnout was moderated by promotion focus. This means that individuals with a low promotion focus experience more exhaustion with increasing levels of qualitative job insecurity, whereas individuals with a high promotion focus experience less exhaustion with increasing levels of qualitative job insecurity. This finding is in contradiction with the definition of promotion focus, that promotion focus is a principle that is concerned with growth and development (Higgins, 1997). Hence, it would be expected that individuals with a high promotion focus who are threatened by job insecurity would do everything to not lose their job. And this would result in higher exhaustion in high promotion focused individuals and not in low promotion focused individuals. However, this appeared not to be the case.

Furthermore, promotion focus moderated the relationship between quantitative job insecurity and engagement. Overall, high promotion focused individuals experienced a higher level of engagement. However, the negative effects of job insecurity appeared to be more distinct among individuals with a low promotion focus. This means that individuals with a low promotion focus appeared to have the strongest disadvantage from high job insecurity. An explanation could be that promotion focused individuals are triggered by the positive aspects of engagement (Sassenberg & Scholl, 2013) and, regardless of the undesired aspect of job insecurity, show a significant relationship with engagement.

The Moderating Role of Gender

Finally, it was expected that gender would moderate the relationship between job insecurity and burnout, engagement, and performance. In comparison to women, men were expected to strengthen the association between job insecurity and burnout, engagement, and performance. The expectation was confirmed for quantitative job insecurity on task and contextual performance. This means that men who experience high job insecurity will demonstrate less performance than men who experience low job insecurity. This expectation

was based on the role theory (De Goede & Maassen, 1988), which states that for men their work role is the most important role. Furthermore, the male breadwinner model (Lewis, 2001) implies that men have the primary responsibility to earn the money and that women have to take care of the children. For burnout and engagement the expectation was not supported. Gender did not moderate the relationship between job insecurity and burnout and between job insecurity and engagement. An explanation for the absence of an effect could be that there are not enough married men participating in this study. Especially married men are likely to experience job insecurity (De Witte, 1999), because of the reasons mentioned above by the role theory and the male breadwinner theory. The limited amount of men in this study underlines the importance of a replication study.

Limitations of the Current Study and Suggestions for Further Research

The findings reported in the current research are limited by a number of factors. First, the study design was cross-sectional. This design limits the study in finding causal relationships between the presented variables. Hence, reversed causality could be a problem. Longitudinal research would need to be conducted to give a better indication of the direction of the relationships. Despite this limitation, this study gives more insight in individual factors underlying the effect of job insecurity on well-being and performance.

Another limitation of the present research is that almost 75% of the respondents of the study were women. This has limitations for the generalizability of the study. Following the role theory (De Goede & Maassen, 1988), (married) men are more likely to experience job insecurity. This could have implications for finding the expected results. A sample with an equal amount of men and women could give other findings.

Furthermore, the majority of the participants had a permanent contract of employment. Individuals with temporary contracts are more prone to experience job insecurity (De Witte, 2005). The low quantity of participants with a temporary contract could be a reason that some associations are not found in the current study. Further research incorporating participants with temporary contracts could elaborate on the findings of this study.

Lastly, the present definition of burnout and the scale to measure this concept (UBOS) are more than 35 years old. Desart, Schaufeli and De Witte (2017) designed a new measure to assess burnout: the Burn-out Assessment Tool (BAT). Further research could incorporate this measurement to test relationships between job insecurity and burnout. Additionally, it could be interesting to include a scale of personality traits, in order to study differences in outcomes between individuals.

Implications of the Current Study

This study adds to the existing literature on job insecurity by identifying regulatory focus and gender as individual factors underlying the effects of job insecurity. Earlier studies that measured the relationships between job insecurity and burnout (Dekker & Schaufeli, 1995; De Witte et al., 2016), engagement (Bosman et al., 2005; Stander & Rothman, 2010) and performance (Cheng & Chan, 2008) were partly confirmed. The results showed that regulatory focus moderated the relationship between job insecurity and exhaustion, engagement, and performance. However, in most cases these relationships were not as expected. Depending on individuals' regulatory focus, outcomes on these construct may differ per person. This shows the relevance of regulatory focus for job-related outcomes. However, the relationships between job insecurity and exhaustion, engagement, and performance should be further investigated to get a better understanding of how regulatory focus is associated with these constructs. Furthermore, the current study has found that men were linked to stronger associations between job insecurity and performance compared to women.

The practical implication of this study is that regulatory focus should be seen as an important individual factor, which can strengthen and weaken the effects of job insecurity on job-related outcomes. Also, gender was found to be a predictor of these relationships. This could be a relevant factor in for example predicting work-related well-being outcomes of the workforce.

Conclusion

The present study has provided more insight into the relationships between job insecurity, burnout, engagement, and performance. Furthermore, the moderating roles of regulatory focus and gender were examined. The results imply that job insecurity is negatively related to engagement and performance, whereas it is positively related to burnout. Furthermore, regulatory focus and gender moderate these relationships. The results show the importance of the consequences of job insecurity on job-related outcomes, and the individual factors that could contribute to these effects. The insights from this study may be fruitful in predicting work-related well-being outcomes of employees. Job insecurity is inevitable during these days, but it is possible to learn how to deal with the consequences.

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Footnote

¹ In the survey, half of the questions the scale was accidentally changed to a 6-pointscale, ranging from 0 (“never”) to 5 (“every day”).

APPENDIX

Informed Consent

Beste deelnemer,

Hartelijk dank voor het meewerken aan mijn onderzoek naar baan(on)zekerheid. Het doel van het onderzoek is inzicht krijgen in de relatie tussen baan(on)zekerheid en psychologisch welbevinden en prestatie. Daarnaast wordt er gekeken wat de rol is van uw persoonlijke houding t.o.v. uw werk op deze relatie.

Aan het begin van de vragenlijst worden een aantal achtergrondgegevens gevraagd. De overige vragen hebben betrekking op uw werk. De informatie die u verstrekt, zal geheel anoniem en strikt vertrouwelijk behandeld worden. Dit betekent dat de resultaten alleen verwerkt worden door de Universiteit Utrecht.

Het invullen van de vragenlijst kost 10 tot 15 minuten, afhankelijk van de snelheid waarmee u de vragen beantwoordt. Probeer niet te lang na te denken over uw antwoord, het gaat om uw eerste ingeving. Bovendien bestaan er geen goede of foute antwoorden. Let op: u kunt geen vragen overslaan. Voor de verwerking van de data is het van belang dat u alle vragen invult. Wanneer u de vragenlijst heeft ingevuld is het noodzakelijk om op het zwarte pijltje te drukken om de vragenlijst te verzenden.

Uiteraard is deelname geheel vrijblijvend en kunt u gedurende het onderzoek op elk moment stoppen. Uw gegevens worden dan niet verwerkt. Wanneer u voor, tijdens of na het onderzoek vragen of suggesties heeft, kunt u mij bereiken via m.c.m.ellenbroek@uu.nl. Zodra u naar de volgende pagina gaat, stemt u in met deelname aan dit onderzoek. Alvast hartelijk dank hiervoor!

Met vriendelijke groet,

Milou Ellenbroek

Masterstudent Social, Health and Organisational Psychology aan de Universiteit Utrecht

In samenwerking met:

dr. Veerle Brenninkmeijer

Onderzoeksbegeleidster Universiteit Utrecht

Achtergrondgegevens

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. Wat is uw geslacht? | Man/vrouw/anders |
| 2. Wat is uw leeftijd? | |
| 3. Wat is uw burgerlijke staat? | Getrouwd/samenwonend
Zelfstandig wonend, met relatie
Zelfstandig wonend, zonder relatie
Inwonend bij ouders
Anders, namelijk: |
| 4. Heeft u thuiswonende kinderen? | Ja/Nee |
| 5. Heeft u uitwonende kinderen? | Ja/Nee |
| 6. Wat is de hoogst genoten opleiding die u heeft afgemaakt? | Lagere school
MAVO, LBO, VMBO
HAVO, MBO
VWO
HBO
WO
Anders, namelijk: |
| 7. Bent u zelfstandig ondernemer? | Ja/Nee |
| 8. Bent u op dit moment werkzaam? | Ja/Nee |
| 9. Hoe lang bent u werkzaam bij uw huidige werkgever? <i>In hele en halve maanden.</i> | ... |
| 10. Hoe lang bent u werkzaam in uw huidige functie? <i>In hele en halve maanden.</i> | ... |
| 11. Wat voor contract heeft u? | Loondienst, vast dienstverband
Loondienst, tijdelijk dienstverband
Anders, namelijk: |
| 12. Voor hoeveel uur per week heeft u Contractueel een aanstelling? | ... |

Indien dit niet van toepassing is, kunt u het volgende invullen: nvt

Persoonlijke houding (Work Regulatory Focus Measure)

De onderstaande vragen gaan over uw persoonlijke houding ten opzichte van uw werk. Kies bij iedere stelling het antwoord dat op u van toepassing is.

Antwoordschalen:

1 = helemaal mee oneens;

2 = mee oneens;

3 = enigszins mee oneens;

4 = enigszins mee eens;

5 = mee eens;

6 = helemaal mee eens.

1. Ik concentreer mij op het correct volbrengen van mijn taken om mijn baan zekerheid te vergroten.
2. Ik heb de neiging om risico's te nemen in mijn werk om succes te bereiken.
3. Op mijn werk word ik gemotiveerd door mijn ambities en idealen.
4. Het vervullen van de plichten op mijn werk is erg belangrijk voor mij.
5. Op het werk ben ik vaak gefocust op taken die mijn behoefte aan veiligheid ondersteunen.
6. Ik grijp mijn kansen op het werk om mijn doelen voor vooruitgang te vergroten.
7. Als ik de mogelijkheid had om mee te werken aan een zeer risicovol, maar zeer belonend project zou ik dat zeker doen.
8. Baan zekerheid is een belangrijke factor voor mij bij iedere zoektocht naar een baan.
9. Ik focus mij op het volbrengen van taken die mij verder doen groeien in mijn baan.
10. Mijn werk prioriteiten worden beïnvloed door een duidelijk beeld van hoe ik zou willen zijn.
11. Op het werk streef ik ernaar mijn verantwoordelijkheden en plichten opgelegd door anderen, te volbrengen.
12. Op het werk focus ik mij op het voltooien van de aan mij toegewezen taken.
13. Ik richt mijn aandacht op het vermijden van mislukking op mijn werk.
14. Ik besteed veel tijd aan nadenken over hoe ik mijn ambities ga vervullen.
15. Ik doe er alles om mislukkingen op het werk te voorkomen.

16. De kans om te groeien is een belangrijke factor voor mij, bij iedere zoektocht naar een baan.
17. Als mijn baan geen mogelijkheden gaf om door te groeien, dan zou ik waarschijnlijk een nieuwe baan zoeken.
18. Ik let goed op dat ik mijzelf niet blootstel aan mogelijke mislukkingen op mijn werk.

Inzetbaarheid (Employability scale; not used in analysis)

De volgende stellingen gaan over de mogelijkheden die u hebt in uw loopbaan. Kies bij iedere stelling het antwoord dat op u van toepassing is.

- 1 = helemaal mee oneens;
- 2 = mee oneens;
- 3 = neutraal;
- 4 = mee eens;
- 5 = helemaal mee eens.

1. Ik vind gemakkelijk een baan als ik mijn huidige baan verlies.
2. Ik zou snel ander werk kunnen vinden, als ik daarnaar zou zoeken.
3. Ik ben in staat om bij een ander bedrijf een betere baan te vinden als ik daarnaar zou zoeken.
4. Ik zou een andere, betere baan kunnen vinden als ik dat zou willen.
5. Ik ben in mijn huidige werk inzetbaar voor verschillende soorten werk.
6. Ik ben in staat om bij mijn huidige werkgever door te stromen naar andere functies.
7. Ik kan in mijn huidige baan hogerop komen.
8. Ik zou binnen mijn huidige organisatie door kunnen groeien naar een betere baan.

Baanonzekerheid ((quantitative) Job Insecurity Scale)

De volgende uitspraken gaan over uw (on)zekerheid over uw baan. Kies bij iedere stelling het antwoord dat op u van toepassing is.

Antwoordschalen:

- 1 = helemaal mee oneens;
- 2 = mee oneens;
- 3 = deels mee eens; deels mee oneens;
- 4 = mee eens;
- 5 = helemaal mee eens.

1. Ik weet zeker dat ik deze baan kan behouden.
2. Ik voel me onzeker over de toekomst van mijn baan.
3. De kans bestaat dat ik binnenkort mijn baan verlies.
4. Ik denk dat ik mijn baan zal verliezen in de nabije toekomst.

Baanonzekerheid ((qualitative) Job Insecurity Scale)

Geef voor de volgende items aan wat de kans is dat het beoordeelde aspect zal verbeteren of verslechteren in de toekomst.

Antwoordschalen:

- 1 = sterk verslechteren;
- 2 = verslechteren;
- 3 = niet veranderen;
- 4 = verbeteren;
- 5 = sterk verbeteren.

1. De fysieke werkomstandigheden
2. De werkuren
3. De omgang met uw collega's
4. Uw werkzekerheid
5. De werkdruk
6. De inhoud van uw baan
7. Uw promotiekansen
8. De omgang met uw directe leidinggevende
9. De mate van autonomie in uw werk
10. De mate waarin u uw deskundigheid kan gebruiken in uw werk

11. Uw loon

Welbevinden (1) (Utrecht Work Engagement Scale)

De volgende uitspraken gaan over de manier waarop u uw werk beleeft en hoe u zich daarbij voelt. Kies bij iedere stelling het antwoord dat op u van toepassing is.

Antwoordschalen:

0 = nooit;

1 = bijna nooit (een paar keer per jaar of minder);

2 = af en toe (eens per maand of minder);

3 = regelmatig (een paar keer per maand);

4 = dikwijls (eens per week);

5 = zeer dikwijls (een paar keer per week);

6 = altijd (elke dag).

1. Op mijn werk bruis ik van energie.
2. Ik vind het werk dat ik doe nuttig en zinvol.
3. Als ik aan het werk ben, dan vliegt de tijd voorbij.
4. Als ik werk voel ik me fit en sterk.
5. Ik ben enthousiast over mijn baan.
6. Als ik werk vergeet ik alle andere dingen om me heen.
7. Mijn werk inspireert mij.
8. Als ik 's morgens opsta heb ik zin om aan het werk te gaan.
9. Wanneer ik heel intensief aan het werk ben, voel ik mij gelukkig.
10. Ik ben trots op het werk dat ik doe.
11. Ik ga helemaal op in mijn werk.
12. Als ik aan het werk ben, dan kan ik heel lang doorgaan.
13. Mijn werk is voor mij een uitdaging.
14. Mijn werk brengt mij in vervoering.
15. Op mijn werk beschik ik over een grote mentale (geestelijke) veerkracht.
16. Ik kan me moeilijk van mijn werk losmaken.

17. Op mijn werk zet ik altijd door, ook als het tegenzit.

Welbevinden (2) (Utrecht Burn Out Scale)

De volgende uitspraken gaan over de manier waarop u uw werk beleeft en hoe u zich daarbij voelt. Kies bij iedere stelling het antwoord dat op u van toepassing is.

Antwoordschalen:

0 = nooit;

1 = bijna nooit (een paar keer per jaar of minder);

2 = af en toe (eens per maand of minder);

3 = regelmatig (een paar keer per maand);

4 = dikwijls (eens per week);

5 = zeer dikwijls (een paar keer per week).

6 = altijd (elke dag).

1. Ik voel me mentaal uitgeput door mijn werk.
2. Ik twijfel aan het nut van mijn werk.
3. Een hele dag werken vormt een zware belasting voor mij.
4. Ik weet de problemen in mijn werk adequaat op te lossen.
5. Ik voel mij “opgebrand” door mijn werk.
6. Ik heb het gevoel dat ik met mijn werk een positieve bijdrage lever aan het functioneren van de organisatie.
7. Ik merk dat ik teveel afstand heb gekregen van mijn werk.
8. Ik ben niet meer zo enthousiast als vroeger over mijn werk.
9. Ik vind dat ik mijn werk goed doe.
10. Als ik op mijn werk iets afrond vrolijkt me dat op.
11. Aan het einde van een werkdag voel ik me leeg.

12. Ik heb in deze baan veel waardevolle dingen bereikt.
13. Ik voel mij vermoeid als ik 's morgens opsta en weer een werkdag voor me ligt.
14. Ik ben cynischer geworden over de effecten van mijn werk.
15. Op mijn werk blaak ik van zelfvertrouwen.

Prestatie (Job Performance Scale)

De volgende stellingen hebben betrekking op uw meest recente werksituatie.

De volgende vragen gaan over hoe u functioneert in uw werk. Kies bij iedere stelling het antwoord dat op u van toepassing is.

Antwoordschalen:

- 1 = helemaal mee oneens;
- 2 = mee oneens;
- 3 = deels mee eens, deels mee oneens;
- 4 = mee eens;
- 5 = helemaal mee eens.

1. U helpt collega's met hun werk als zij terugkeren van een periode van afwezigheid.
2. U behaalt de doelen van uw functie.
3. U biedt vrijwillig aan om dingen te doen die formeel gezien niet vereist worden door de functie die u bekleedt.
4. U voldoet aan de normen voor goede prestaties.
5. U neemt initiatief om nieuwe medewerkers wegwijs te maken, hoewel dit formeel gezien geen onderdeel van uw functie is.
6. U laat zien een deskundige te zijn op alle onderdelen van uw werkzaamheden.

7. U helpt collega's die kampen met een hoge werkdruk of andere problemen hebben.
8. U vervult alle eisen die uw functie aan u stelt.
9. U helpt uw collega's bij de uitvoering van hun werkzaamheden.
10. U kunt meer aan dan er van u gevraagd wordt.
11. U doet goede suggesties om de algehele kwaliteit van de afdeling/de organisatie te verbeteren.
12. U lijkt geschikt voor een hogere positie.
13. U bent bereid om dingen te doen die niet door de organisatie worden geëist, maar die goed zijn voor het imago van de organisatie.
14. U bent competent op alle terreinen van uw functie.
15. U presteert goed in uw functie doordat u de taken naar verwachting uitvoert.
16. U organiseert en plant het werk om doelen te realiseren en deadlines te halen.

Einde

Einde van de vragenlijst

Heeft u nog opmerkingen of suggesties?

Indien u geïnteresseerd bent in de resultaten van dit onderzoek, kunt u uw emailadres hieronder invullen. Uw e-mailadres zal worden ontkoppeld van uw persoonlijke gegevens en zal alleen gebruikt worden voor het toesturen van de resultaten. Op deze manier wordt uw anonimiteit gewaarborgd. Naar verwachting ontvangt u de resultaten in augustus 2018.

Hartelijk dank voor uw deelname!

Vergeet niet op het zwarte pijltje te drukken om de vragenlijst te verzenden.