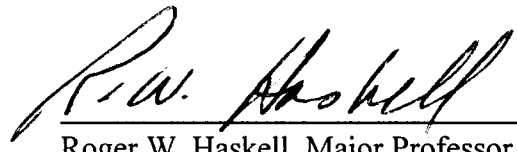


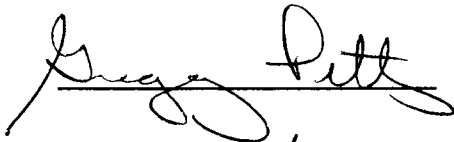
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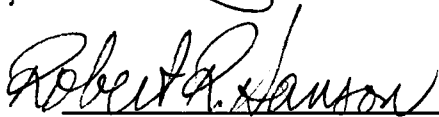
I am submitting herewith a thesis written by A.M. Lindsey entitled "Job Insecurity Among Employees at a Government-Funded Company in East Tennessee." I have examined the final copy of this thesis for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science, with a major in Human Resource Development.



Roger W. Haskell, Major Professor

We have read this thesis
and recommend its acceptance:





Accepted for the Council:



Associate Vice Chancellor and
Dean of The Graduate School.

JOB INSECURITY AMONG
EMPLOYEES AT A GOVERNMENT-FUNDED COMPANY IN EAST TENNESSEE

A Thesis
Presented for the Master of Science
Degree
The University of Tennessee, Knoxville

A.M. Lindsey

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Abstract

Downsizing has become increasingly common among companies as a means of increasing their competitive positions. This trend to downsizing has had a negative effect in terms of employee motivation and morale among the survivors of these layoffs. Lower motivation and morale frequently result in lower employee productivity, which results in loss of customer base, which in turn leads to more layoffs. This begins the process over again, resulting in a downward cycle that may eventually lead to the company's collapse. Future productivity and success depend on reducing job insecurity and maintaining positive attitudes held by the remaining employees. The purpose of this study was to identify the level of job insecurity, as measured by the Job Insecurity Scale (JIS), among employees at a company which had undergone significant downsizing over a two year period, and to identify demographic characteristics could be used to predict job insecurity. Such an identification would allow the company to implement programs and strategies for maintaining morale and productivity for the groups most at risk for job insecurity.

Results from the studies that have been conducted on the relationship of job insecurity to demographic characteristics have been mixed. Although no real consensus regarding the relationship of job insecurity to productivity and demographic factors was found, researchers have shown the effect of job insecurity on employee mental and physical health is quite negative, resulting in absenteeism, lost productivity, and increased medical costs. Researchers have also shown that the survivors of a downsizing share common needs for justice, security, role clarification and honest and frequent communication from their organization.

Five findings of interest concerning the company under study were identified. First, two demographic factors, gender and social support, were found to be significant with respect to job insecurity; however they were not strong predictors of job insecurity. Second, the least secure employees were female, and had lower levels of education and more economic dependence on their jobs than the most secure employees. Greater numbers of the least secure employees had also received new job responsibilities. Third, the least secure employees and the most secure employees showed a considerable degree of congruence in their groups' internal rankings of job features which were the most important to them, but little congruence was found between the two groups' perceptions of the threat to those job features. Fourth, a moderate amount of congruence was found between the least secure employees' and most secure employees' internal rankings for the importance of certain changes to their jobs, either positive or negative; however, a considerable amount of congruence was found between the two groups' perceptions of which changes were most likely to occur. The fifth finding concerned the written comments of the employees in this study. Their comments reflect feelings of job insecurity based on a perception that there was a lack of communication about the issues surrounding the downsizing and that the company, as currently structured, is in serious decline.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Today, due to increasing competition, both nationally and globally, corporations are restructuring using merging, demassifying, and employee downsizing in an effort to remain competitive, with employee downsizing being the most common among the three. This means that the typical adult in the workplace today will work at ten and a half different jobs and have three different career changes during his working life (Raber, 1996).

The trend toward downsizing has been increasing since the recession of the early 1980's. In the mid-1980s, corporate mergers and acquisitions began to increase, a move which companies believed would give them a better financial position. However, a direct result of this move toward business consolidations has been a significant rise in layoffs. In 1993, a survey by the American Management Association (AMA) showed that nearly half of the companies surveyed had downsized two or more times in the past six years and over ten percent had downsized four or more times. The survey found that large companies were more likely to trim jobs than smaller ones, but smaller firms cut more deeply when they downsized. According to the survey's results, 57 percent of companies with 10,000 or more employees downsized by reducing 8.8 percent of the workforce; 39 percent of companies with under 100 employees downsized by reducing 21.7 percent of the work force.

In a 1994 study, Medoff found that the vulnerability of all workers to permanent job loss rather than temporary layoff had increased dramatically. In the 1990-1991 recession, 86 percent of workers who had lost their jobs had lost them permanently, while the remaining 14 percent were on layoff expecting recall. In contrast, in the prior four recessions, on average just over half of the job losses were permanent while 44 percent were on temporary layoff (Medoff, 1994).

The 1993 AMA survey showed 47 percent of 713 major U.S. companies reported job eliminations in the 12 months ending June 1994. This survey also indicated that one in four of these companies planned to downsize before the end of 1995, representing the highest level of planned downsizing recorded in the survey's eight year history. Of particular interest in the survey was the conclusion that downsizing has become a strategic move rather than a reactive one. For the first time since 1988-1989, fewer than half the reported layoffs was attributed to actual or anticipated business downturns (AMA, 1993). The study also showed that every business day since January 1993, an average of 2,389 workers in the United States had been informed that they were losing their jobs. The survey further predicted that at some point in their lives, two out of three Americans would be forced out of their jobs. Nor is downsizing confined to the corporate sector; it is occurring throughout the U.S. labor force, including government and the not-for-profit sector. In September 1993, the Clinton Administration announced its plan to reinvent government. The plan included a major reduction in the federal workforce, bringing federal employment below two million employees for the first time since 1966 (Raber, 1996).

Relying on workforce reductions to increase earnings while maintaining productivity and output can result in an increased risk for negative psychological effects among employees. The effect of these workforce reductions, or downsizing, can include increased levels of stress, fear, anxiety, anger, depression, and guilt, among others. These feelings, in turn, can lead to decreased cooperation and motivation on the part of employees, which affects the performance of the organization (Neal, 1994). Personnel managers at 909 companies which had undergone downsizing reported that 70 percent of employees who still had their jobs were afraid of losing them. The survey showed that only 44 percent of the downsized companies shared their plans with employees, and only 34 percent told the survivors of the downsizings how they would fit into the company's new strategy. The personnel managers reported that their companies had lost their employees' trust, and 80 percent of those managers believed that their employees could not manage their work without stress (Duron, 1993).

Decreased motivation, morale, and loyalty to the organization, accompanied by increased stress levels, skepticism, and feelings of job insecurity are all elements of survivor syndrome. The term was originally coined to describe the guilt and grief of people spared by disasters such as Hiroshima, the Holocaust, or a hurricane. After over ten years of downsizing, it has also come to mean the behaviors and emotions often exhibited by remaining employees following downsizing in their companies. One aspect of survivor syndrome in particular, feelings of job insecurity, has been shown to have negative consequences for companies, such as an increased tendency for employees to

leave the company and for remaining employees to be more resistant to change (Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt, 1984).

Once employees feel insecure about their jobs, and their motivation and productivity is lowered, they begin providing poor service. This causes customer dissatisfaction, resulting in a failure to develop customer loyalty and to retain their business. As the company's profits shrink from loss of its customer base, it often will implement another round of layoffs in an effort to reduce costs and maximize profits. This begins the process over again, resulting in a cycle that may eventually lead to the company's demise (Schlesinger and Heskett, 1991). Future productivity and success depend on maintaining positive attitudes held by the remaining employees.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

A mid-sized government-funded company located in East Tennessee underwent a significant downsizing during the 18 months from October 1994 to March 1996. During this time, the company lost 116 employees, about 17 percent of its staff, and has continued to lose staff, either through forced or voluntary reductions in staff. Previously, this company had never experienced reductions in force (RIFs) of large numbers of employees; in fact, employment numbers had risen steadily in keeping with the level of government spending in East Tennessee. However, government spending in the area has decreased over the past two years due to budget cuts in federal programs. As spending levels have dropped, so too have the employment levels of government contractors in East Tennessee,

like the company examined in this study. It is likely that this trend will continue. The Department of Energy, the company's main customer, is undergoing downsizing itself, with corresponding reductions in the contracts it places. This means a shrinking pool of dollars for which the many government contractors must compete. In order to remain competitive, the company must ensure that its levels of productivity and quality remain high. If employees are experiencing feelings of job insecurity due to downsizing, management needs to be aware of this phenomenon and take steps to address these feelings.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to identify the level of job insecurity among company employees, and to ascertain if selected demographic characteristics can be used to predict job insecurity. If there are demographic characteristics which can be used as predictors of job insecurity, management may be able to target the populations at risk and develop programs and strategies for maintaining morale and productivity. Recommendations based on other companies' experiences with job insecurity will be provided to management for consideration.

Objectives

The objectives of this study are three-fold. The first objective is to identify feelings of job insecurity, as measured by the Job Insecurity Scale (JIS), among employees as differentiated by nine demographic factors: age, gender, tenure, job status (exempt vs

non-exempt worker), educational level, income need, job change, relocation, and presence of internal social support. The second objective is to determine which of the above groups report feelings of job insecurity most frequently. The third objective is to make recommendations concerning actions which should be taken by management to alleviate job insecurity within its workforce.

Age is examined in this study to determine if older or younger employees experience greater job insecurity. Much has been reported in the press about the difficulty of finding a comparable position for the laid off older employee due to the ease of hiring younger, less expensive employees. The relationship of gender to job insecurity is evaluated to ascertain if women or men feel more insecure. Tenure's relationship to job insecurity is examined to determine if more recent hires feel as though they will be the first to be laid off and to see if workers with more tenure feel more secure.

Three educational levels are used to group employees into: graduates of high school but lacking a baccalaureate degree, graduates of four-year colleges or universities, and those with post-graduate study. Similarly, income need is used to group employees by their dependence on income from their jobs. It is often assumed that individuals who depend more on the income from their jobs will be more easily made insecure by a perceived threat to their jobs than individuals who have less need for their wages. Employees are also divided into those who had received a new job or received new responsibilities within the company as a result of the downsizing and those who had experienced no change in their jobs. It may be that employees who receive new jobs or new responsibilities experience greater levels of stress and thus greater job insecurity.

Employees are also identified by whether they had relocated to another geographic location outside of the area and whether this relocation contributes to increased job insecurity.

Hypothesis

There are no significant differences in the presence of feelings of job insecurity among respondents as related to their age, gender, tenure, job status as a salaried vs hourly worker, educational level, income need, job change, relocation, or the presence of a person with whom to share feelings (social support person).

Definitions

The following terms are used in this study:

Demassifying: a word coined to characterize the removal of large “chunks” of managers and professionals from organizations, representing about five to ten percent of the total work force.

Downsizing: the systematic reduction of the work force by an employer. Frequently, downsizing results in involuntary layoffs rather than voluntary reductions.

Government-Funded Company: A company which receives all or most of its funding from the federal government.

Job Insecurity Scale (JIS): a relative scale used to measure the feelings of job insecurity.

Exempt Employee: An employee whose salary is paid once a month, typically holding a professional position.

Job Insecurity: the powerlessness to maintain desired continuity in a threatened job situation (Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt, 1984).

Nonexempt Employee: An employee whose wages are paid bi-weekly by the number of hours worked, typically holding a support position, such as clerical or custodial.

RIFs: Reductions In Force, frequently used in government reductions or restructurings.

Used interchangeably with downsizing.

Survivor Syndrome: the behaviors and emotions associated with loss of productivity and morale often exhibited by remaining employees following downsizing in their companies (Hutchinson, 1994).

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

As downsizing has become more and more of an obsession with American corporations, media attention on its effects on survivors following a downsizing has increased (Koesterer, 1994). However, formal research in this area is still quite limited. Much of the research has looked broadly at all facets of survivor syndrome, including feelings of job insecurity, stress, injustice, anger, guilt, lower commitment and loyalty to the organization, and reduced work performance (Brockner, Grover, Reed, and DeWitt, & O'Malley, 1987). Little research has focused exclusively on feelings of job insecurity, the subject of this paper. This literature review will present a broad overview of early research done on relationships of job insecurity and employee productivity, motivation, health, and the smaller body of later research that has examined such demographic factors as age, gender, tenure, educational level, income need, job changes, relocation, and social support.

Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt (1984) defined job insecurity as "the powerlessness to maintain desired continuity in a threatened job situation" (p. 438). They described workers' reactions to job insecurity and the consequences for organizational effectiveness as follows:

What the individual perceives as potential loss of continuity in a job situation can span the range from permanent loss of the job itself to loss of some subjectively important feature of the job.... The most important source of threat is

organizational decline. Employees usually know when an organization is in decline, that is when it has become maladapted to its niche.... They also know that maladaptation often leads to organizational shrinkage and other adjustments that are likely to affect the continuity of their current job situations..... Similar fears can be evoked by the anticipation of a reorganization.... Relationships have been documented between job insecurity and reduced work effort, propensity to leave and resistance to change. The findings involving propensity to leave and resistance to change are consistent across studies, whereas the investigations involving work effort have mixed results. Further research is needed to identify the conditions under which work effort is reduced as a result of felt job insecurity.... The negative correlation found in studies between job insecurity and work effort is interesting because it contradicts expectations: there is a widely held assumption that security and complacency are related. Second, it would be rational for employees who feel insecure to exert more in order to become more valuable to the organization and thereby reduce their objective job insecurity. The positive correlation between job insecurity and resistance to change also is of interest because it, too, appears to contradict rational behavior. Specifically, one would expect insecure employees to welcome adaptive change because it should make their jobs more secure by counteracting organizational decline. The positive relation between job insecurity and propensity to leave is not unexpected. It would be rational for employees worried about continuity of employment to seek more secure career opportunities. However, this relationship is important because exits

are not randomly distributed across employees. Rather, the most valuable employees tend to be the first to leave.... These [predispositions] have organizational consequences in the form of impaired productivity, increased turnover, and barriers to adaptation. All of these reduce organizational effectiveness (p. 66-68).

Many of the researchers cited in this review name the work of Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt as the foundation for their own studies. The following studies on job insecurity and productivity expand on their research relating to job insecurity and work effort.

Job Insecurity and Employee Productivity

Study results differ on the reduction of productivity and feelings of job insecurity. A 1992 study by Brockner of retail employees whose stores had undergone a downsizing supports, in part, Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt's findings. Brockner studied employees of a national chain of 773 retail stores. In the 12 months prior to his study, the company had closed many of its stores. The 557 respondents were predominantly women, with an average tenure of 4 years and an average age of 37. Brockner studied the perceived change in the work effort of these survivors because he felt it was one of two key determinants of job performance, the other being ability. Brockner postulated that the survivors' abilities were unlikely to change significantly after a layoff, so any change in their work performance could probably be attributed to change in work effort. Respondents were asked to report their opinions on whether they were working as hard after downsizing as they had before the announcement of the downsizing. Brockner's

study had two central purposes: 1) to determine if the relationship between job insecurity and the survivors' work effort was nonlinear and, 2) if the survivors' economic need moderated the relationship between job insecurity and work effort. (The results of the second analysis will be discussed in a later section on income need.) Brockner described his study as follows:

Several theoretical perspectives suggest that the relationship between layoff-induced job insecurity and survivors' work effort is probably not linear--specifically that work effort will be greater at moderate rather than low or high levels of job insecurity. If job insecurity is low, survivors are likely to be unmotivated because they feel complacent. They do not believe additional layoffs are likely: perceived threat is low. Moreover, even if additional layoffs occur, they believe that they or the organization can take action to help them avoid or minimize the negative consequences of job loss: perceived control is high. If job insecurity is high, survivors are also likely to be unmotivated, but for different reasons than if job insecurity were low. They believe that layoffs are likely (perceived threat is high). Furthermore, they believe there is little that they or the organization can do to help them counteract the negative consequences of job loss (perceived control is low). These perceptions are likely to lead to feelings of helplessness, which, in turn, attenuate motivation. Thus, moderate levels of job insecurity--high enough to overcome the complacency associated with low job insecurity, but not so high as to elicit the helplessness associated with high job insecurity--should lead survivors to exhibit the greatest level of work effort. If

perceived threat and control are both high, survivors should feel neither complacent nor helpless, and thus should work relatively hard.... If the job insecurity associated with a layoff is related to survivors' work effort in a nonlinear, inverted-U fashion, we expected to observe an effect for the interaction of perceived threat and perceived control: survivors' work effort should be greater when both elements are high or low (job insecurity is at a moderate level) than when either perceived threat is high and perceived control is low (job insecurity is high) or perceived threat is low and perceived control is high (job insecurity is low) (p. 414).

Brockner's results validated his prediction of an inverted U-shaped relationship between work effort and job insecurity. Productivity was perceived to have increased when job insecurity was moderate, especially for those employees with low self-esteem. Conversely, when job insecurity was either very high or very low, perceived levels of productivity decreased. From Brockner's perspective, the difficult task for management would appear to be how to keep job insecurity at a moderate level, which was found to be associated with the most positive survivor reactions.

Brockner's finding that productivity was increased for surviving workers of low self-esteem was foreshadowed by his work with Davy and Carter in 1985 on the effect of worker self-esteem on productivity following a layoff manipulation. Employees with low self-esteem showed an increase in productivity as perceived by their supervisors following a laboratory layoff condition. Those with moderate and high self-esteem showed no significant difference in productivity. Although the quantity of the low self-esteem

worker's task performance increased following the dismissal of a co-worker, the quality of work remained unchanged as perceived by the supervisors of these employees.

Brockner, Davy & Carter's interpretation of these results was that those lacking confidence and self-worth may be especially motivated to show that they deserve to remain employed by the organization.

Brockner and Greenberg (1990) found that survivors who possessed a strong work ethic and were particularly devoted to their jobs felt a strong sense of allegiance to the organization. Additionally, survivors with a high level of authority within the organization identified more strongly with the organization's goals and values. These employees were likely to react in a more sympathetic fashion toward the organization and distance themselves from the layoff victims. Survivors who identified with the laid-off employees were more likely to respond by feeling negatively toward the organization. These relationships were characterized by a high level of communication about the layoffs and having a similar level of organizational status, e.g. both victim and survivor were both nonsupervisors or supervisors. These survivors were perceived to be less productive following a layoff condition compared to those survivors who had low identification with the laid-off employees.

The 1992 study by Brockner also found that survivors' changes in organizational commitment, work effort, and turnover intention, were generally related to those of fellow survivors in their immediate work group. The situation was especially true when the survivors had a high level of communication with fellow survivors about the layoff, and

when co-workers were of the same rank as the survivors, rather than supervisors (Brockner, 1992).

In another study, Duron (1993) examined the effects of layoffs on corporate survivors of downsized and employees of non downsized departments in a Silicon Valley aerospace company. Her study assessed the global organizational climate, coping behaviors, and the respondents' perceptions of morale and productivity outcomes. The study surveyed 500 employees in nine departments. The survivor groups had experienced as many as three layoff periods in the previous year. Productivity outcomes were measured by process efficiency and product effectiveness. Duron found that the survivors working in downsized departments displayed a higher concern about the probability of future downsizing than did the employees of the departments that were not downsized. Those without a recent, direct experience of layoffs seemed to feel more immune to a future occurrence, at least in their current organization. Duron also acknowledged the possibility of another interpretation of this finding, namely that employees not affected by the recent layoffs were denying the probability of future layoffs. However, both groups perceived the probability of additional company-wide layoffs the same. Survivors also reported a greater decline in morale than did employees whose departments were not downsized. Survivors indicated that they did not like working for the company as much as they had previously, felt less pride, and had less intention of remaining with the company (Duron, 1993).

Duron reported the negative effect of downsizing and the resulting job insecurity on employee productivity as follows:

The primary expected outcome of the study was that an impact on productivity would be observable in the downsizing environment. The total sample, the control group, and the experimental group all reported a perception that both effectiveness and efficiency had decreased within the past six months. However, effectiveness, [as measured by the respondents' perception of doing work with minimum waste or duplication of effort or the organization's ability to improve processes and streamline non-value added activities] took a sharper decline. It seemed that personnel were still making an effort to streamline processes and reduce waste, but their output was being negatively affected. Component variables of the downsizing event were disruption, lost productive time, quantity of work, and work pressure, all of which had increased in the past six months. As these variables increased, effectiveness and efficiency decreased, according to the total population.... An unexpected finding resulted from separating management from non management personnel and analyzing the effects of the quantity of work and perceived morale on effectiveness. While non management personnel viewed an increased quantity of work as a negative correlate of effectiveness, management assessed it as a positive one.... For [non managers], as the quantity of work increased, effectiveness decreased.... For [managers], as the quantity of work increased, effectiveness also increased (p. 118, 123).

Duron (1993) also found that morale correlated positively with productivity, and that it could significantly offset the loss of productivity caused by downsizing. Duron identified three primary management practices that influenced morale. These practices

involved: 1) clarity of expectations, 2) quality and quantity of communications about the changes taking place, and 3) the recognition of workers' accomplishments. Duron recommended that job functions and expectations be reclarified regularly as the organization, its direction, and expectations change. "Work must be resized to fit the capabilities of the changed work force.... The company's organizational direction and objectives must be clearly communicated so that employees know what to expect, and therefore, what is expected of them" (p. 128).

Duron also recommended giving employees full information during a layoff, pointing out that whatever people do not receive through official channels, they will hear through informal channels or will invent to fill in the gaps. Duron's position on worker recognition as a promoter of morale focused on giving workers autonomy and lower-level decision authority, stating that pushing decisions farther down in the organization saves time and money on management decision-making and gives survivors a sense of increased trust and value as employees (Duron, 1993).

A study by Ashford, Lee, & Bobko (1989) on the relationship of job insecurity and job performance did not support a positive relationship between these two factors. Increased job insecurity was not significantly related to low job performance. The results did show that increased feelings of job insecurity were positively related to the number of organizational changes anticipated, perceptions of role ambiguity, sense of loss of control, job seeking intentions, perceptions of low organizational commitment, lack of trust in the organization, and lack of job satisfaction. Ashford et al. found:

The pattern of results...supports the argument that perceived lack of predictability and control may induce perceptions of job insecurity. Organizational changes, role ambiguity, and external locus of control were all associated with increased job insecurity, consistent with the argument that those elements engender a feeling of lack of predictability and control.... Job insecurity did not correlate significantly with supervisory ratings of job performance (p. 818).

However, the researchers cautioned that their subjects may not have included the needed individuals to reach a valid conclusion about productivity:

Given the respondents for this research, we may have captured chronic perceptions of insecurity rather than the acute insecurity that might follow a series of layoff rumors. If that were so, the level of job insecurity tapped in this research may not have been high enough to result in performance decrements. Alternatively, it may be that job insecurity perceptions are related to effort, but that other performance predictors, such as ability, the economic condition of a firm, and the availability of resources overwhelm the effect of effort on subsequent performance (p. 820).

A study by Redfield (1994) evaluated the effects of the downsizing program implemented by the Department of the Navy on active duty service members remaining in the military, as well as their spouses. The survey data were analyzed to determine: 1) the factors that correlated highly with elevated levels of survivor syndrome, 2) the resulting negative effects on the individuals, their units, and their spouses, and 3) the service members' perceptions about the downsizing program. Redfield found job insecurity was increased as a result of downsizing; however, self-reported job productivity generally

improved. Survivor syndrome was most pronounced among the senior officers, who were typically tasked with implementing the downsizing program.

A study by Hutchinson (1994) of 572 managers and employees of a public school system's cafeterias investigated individual responses to downsizing. The researcher also examined the relationships between employees' stress-related perception and their work-related attitudes and behaviors and any moderating effect of demographic factors on these relationships, which will be reported later in this chapter. Hutchinson found a significant positive relationship between the severity of the downsizing and productivity as measured by the increase in meals served per labor hour.

Job Insecurity and Employee Motivation

In 1954, Maslow developed a theory of motivation based on a hierarchy of needs. Physiologic needs, which included food, water and shelter, were most important to the individual. Although Maslow's need hierarchy was not conceived as a theory of behavior in an organizational context, Maslow himself suggested its applicability to organizational settings: "We can perceive the expressions of security needs...in such phenomena as...the common preference for a job with tenure and protection" (p. 87). Super (1957) viewed security as " ...one of the dominant needs and principal reasons for work" (p. 13) and saw the main components of job security as always being the same: seniority and a stable company. In her doctoral dissertation, Duron stated that a sense of security was one of the most basic human motivating forces and that when that need was not met, a person's efforts were focused almost entirely on gaining that sense of security (Duron, 1993).

Job Insecurity and Employee Physical and Mental Health

Employee health, both physical and mental, is impacted by job insecurity. Work conditions characterized by uncertainty and ambiguity are potential causes of stress for employees. The effects of job insecurity include stress from anticipation of the problems of job loss, ambiguity about what the future holds, and lack of clarity as to which responses might be most adaptive. Job insecurity is especially prevalent among employees in industries that are downsizing and closing facilities, and especially stressful for those employees who will be least able to find other comparable jobs if they lose their current positions. Several cross-sectional studies have shown that employees who perceive that they have an uncertain future in their jobs often feel threatened and anxious, and may exhibit symptoms of distress such as depression and bodily disturbances, such high blood pressure, shortness of breath, racing or pounding heart, etc.

Vance and Kuhnert (1989) found a strong significant relationship between perceived job security and mental and physical health. They concluded from their attitude survey of over 200 employees that the more permanent the employees thought their positions were, the greater their physical and mental well-being. In fact, they found job security to be a better predictor of good health than any other factor in their study.

A study of 715 shipyard workers threatened with job loss was conducted by Swedish researchers. The study had two aims: 1) to ascertain if relations existed between the threat of job loss or future unemployment and changes in risk factors for cardiovascular disease, and 2) whether mental stress and sleep disturbances were related to risk factors for coronary heart disease. Physical examinations measured physical

attributes and a questionnaire was used to measure symptoms such as muscle tension, sleep disturbance, anxiety, and depression. The study results showed that significantly higher scores for sleep disturbance, depression, anxiety, and serum cholesterol were found among men threatened with unemployment than those who were not (Mattiasson, Lindgarde, Nilsson, & Theorell, 1990).

A British study of railway men threatened with loss of their jobs examined the relationship between the threat of layoff and the incidence and duration of sick leave. Owen postulated that the threat of layoff might create a situation in which associated stresses generated by disappointment, feelings of rejection, anger, anxiety and fear resulted in depression, which contributed to a deterioration in the workers' health and an increase in sick leave. The study showed that "...employees with an expectation of security of tenure in their employment had less absence which was attributed to sickness than did those whose future was insecure; moreover, increased length of such absence was associated with the threat of redundancy" (p.51). Although the author conceded that part of this extended absence could have been job seeking behavior, she believed that the increased incidence of sick leave was due to mental stress caused by job insecurity (Owens, 1966).

Another study of Danish slaughterhouse workers (Kristensen, 1991) also examined the relationships of sick leave and job insecurity. Subjects were asked to report on their stress levels, nervousness, anxiety, sleeplessness, and mental fatigue. These factors were then correlated with employee sick leave records. Kristensen found that increased absences from work were positively related to increased levels of stress, nervousness,

anxiety, sleeplessness, and mental fatigue. Kristensen concluded that increased use of sick leave was a coping factor for workers with high job strain due to a high risk of being laid off.

Kasl, Gore & Cobb (1975) measured the effects of plant closings and accompanying layoffs over a two and one-half year period. Beginning with the period when workers were still employed but anticipating termination, they collected data on physical health, psychological health and changes in economic circumstances for employees of plants that were threatened with closure and those that were not. The subjects were followed through three stages: 1) an anticipatory stage which lasted from the time the closing was first announced to the time it actually took place, 2) termination and unemployment which lasted from the plant closing date to 13 weeks later, and 3) a period of readjustment, which varied in length, but in some cases lasted a year or more. Several physiological changes took place during the anticipatory period: blood pressure and uric acid (a precursor of gout) was significantly higher during this phase, but dropped if the subject located a new job. Psychologically, subjects exhibited depression and a poor self-evaluation.

Two studies (Orpen, 1993 and Roskies, Louis-Guerin, & Fournier, 1993) have been conducted that focus respectively on the psychological aspects of job insecurity as differentiated by race and by personality. The first study, of white and black employees in South Africa, examined the correlations between their perceived job insecurity and their psychological well-being. While white employees were found to feel more secure than black employees, no significant differences were seen in levels of anxiety or depression.

Perceived job insecurity had the same positive association with anxiety and depression in both racially diverse groups (Orpen, 1993).

The second study, of two Canadian companies, was conducted to examine the psychological impact of acute and chronic feelings of job insecurity on different personalities. Airline reservation clerks for whom the danger of job loss was clear and imminent, and managers and professionals for whom job insecurity constituted a long-term ambiguous threat, comprised the populations under study. Subjects were grouped into individuals with positive personality traits (people who accentuated the positive in appraising themselves, other people and the world in general) and negative personality traits (the opposite). The researchers found that positive personality traits tended to alleviate the severity of job insecurity, while negative personality traits aggravated it (Roskies, Louis-Guerin, & Fournier, 1993).

Chronic job insecurity has also been found to be related to worker health and safety. Persistent high levels of stress are more likely to result in illness than variable levels of stress. As stressors continue unabated, they may overwhelm an individual's available resources to cope with or adapt to the stressor. A study that explored the effects of job insecurity and unemployment among blue-collar workers over a two year period (Heaney, Israel & House, 1994) found that

...the adverse effects of unemployment abated over the course of the study, but that the mental well-being of employees in insecure jobs worsened. Furthermore, the average mental well-being of employees in insecure jobs was not lower than that of a comparison group of employees in secure jobs until a year of job

insecurity had been experienced. While workers seemed to adapt to the stresses of unemployment, there seemed to be a cumulative effect of chronic job insecurity (p. 1432).

Heaney et al.'s study supported an earlier investigation by Powell and Driscoll (1973) which found that the stress that built up during the period of anticipation and uncertainty prior to layoff tended to be reduced after termination took place. The stress that came from the uncertainty of not knowing whether they would lose their jobs was eliminated for those who finally were terminated. For those who were still working and anxious about their perceived job security, the stress persisted.

Another study of workers at an automobile plant which had endured cutbacks over a two-year period showed survivors experienced shortness of breath, chest tightness and pain, racing or pounding heart, skin irritation, frequent colds, coughs, cramps, sore throats, headaches, back and extremity pain, ringing in the ears, and eye strain more frequently than before the layoff began. The study further showed that these symptoms did not improve over time, meaning that the survivors did not become accustomed to their insecure job status and return to normal health. They remained sick or got worse. The authors of this study concluded that extended periods of job insecurity decrease job satisfaction and increase physical symptoms, more than do feelings of job insecurity at any single point in time (Heaney et al., 1994). The authors described their results as having implications for public health practice:

Increasing automation, shorter product cycles, relocation of factories and continued competition in the marketplace all suggest that job security will remain

low for many American workers in the manufacturing sector. Given that the present study suggests that the negative effects of job insecurity will increase over time, worksite professionals should develop strategies for reducing the negative effects of job insecurity on employee well-being. For example, health professionals can: a) attempt to enhance accurate information-giving and communications [in order] to reduce unnecessary uncertainty; b) advocate for organizational policies that provide for the retraining of employees so that they have viable employment alternatives when terminated from their current positions; c) engage in efforts aimed at creating income security protection policies which provide for some specified time period during which employees are guaranteed not to be terminated from their jobs, but rather to continue to receive their income by being assigned to a jobs bank to carry out tasks as needed; and d) provide training to employees in how to cope with the stress engendered by job insecurity (p. 1436).

Job Insecurity and Demographic factors

Gender, age, and tenure. Several studies have been conducted which have examined the relationships between age or gender and job insecurity following a downsizing. Brockner, Grover, Reed, DeWitt & O'Malley (1992) and Ashford, et al. (1989) found no significant differences based on gender or age. Moreover, although both studies documented the average tenure of the employees studied, no findings concerning the relationship of tenure to job insecurity were reported. Neither Koesterer (1994) nor

Hutchinson (1994) found any significant relationships between perceived job insecurity, age, gender, and tenure.

Educational level and income need. Research findings from studies that have examined these variables are mixed. Koesterer (1994) examined the relationship between job insecurity and educational level in her study of managers. She found that more highly educated employees who experienced downsizing were just as likely to be as insecure as those less educated. In contrast, Hutchinson (1994) found a significant negative correlation between feelings of job insecurity and educational level and wages in his study of 527 managers and employees of 87 school cafeterias. As employees' levels of pay and education increased, their degree of perceived job insecurity decreased.

Brockner, et al. (1992) and Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt (1984) demonstrated that higher economic security needs were positively related to feelings of job insecurity, worry, and job efforts. Brockner found that the survivors' economic need to work moderated the inverted U-shaped relationship between job insecurity and work effort (discussed earlier in this chapter). Only survivors with a high economic need to work translated their feelings of job insecurity into their level of work effort. Koesterer's (1994) results did not support those conclusions. She found employees who relied heavily on income from their jobs were no more or less insecure than employees with more financial independence.

Orpen (1993) studied the relationship of job dependence as a moderator of the effects of job threat (as measured by the respondents' perception of the likelihood of their jobs disappearing) on job insecurity and job performance among employees at a small Australian electronic manufacturer. Employees surveyed ranged from cleaners to senior

managers. Orpen found that that job dependence interacted with job threat in predicting job insecurity but not in predicting job performance. Employees who were more dependent on their jobs felt more insecure than employees who were not so dependent.

Social Support. The topic of social support has occupied a central role in research on social and occupational stress literature, focusing on the role that social support plays in reducing stress both at the workplace as well as outside of work. Social support was hypothesized to influence stress and its related outcomes in three ways. First, individuals who experienced higher levels of support were expected to experience better health and less dissatisfaction with their jobs. Second, when social support was present, the level of perceived stress was expected to be reduced or alleviated. Third, higher levels of support were hypothesized to result in lower levels of stress. All three support the idea that social support can alter the relationship between stress and its outcomes, including job insecurity. However, although the first two effects have been well-documented, the third effect seems to vary depending on the source of the social support, either work-based or non work-based. In general, work-based support appears to be more important in moderating the stress-strain relationship where the stress or strain measures are specific to the work setting (Lim, 1996).

Koesterer (1994) included the social support factor in her study, but found no evidence for the hypothesis that the presence of social support reduced levels of job insecurity. In her study neither the absence nor presence of an internal social support person was related to higher or lower job security. In a study of Bell Telephone workers

(Ashford, et al., 1988), survivors of a downsizing described the sharing of worries and concerns as an effective strategy to gain social support helpful in their stressful situations.

Job changes, relocation, and level of management. Koesterer's (1994) study identified three factors which were found to be significant as predictors of feelings of job insecurity: job changes, relocation, and level of management. Employees who were assigned increased responsibilities or who were trying to learn a new position had greater feelings of job insecurity and problems adapting quickly to their new roles. Relocation, on the other hand, was found to be negatively related to feelings of job insecurity. Employees who had to relocate were found to have less feelings of job insecurity and a perception that their employer cared about them. Supporting her finding, an earlier study of hospital workers (Jick, 1979) showed employees with a high economic need to work and lessened geographic mobility had higher levels of job insecurity than those who did not. Level of management was also found to be a significant factor in Koesterer's study. Lower level managers, who were closer to the customers and the product or service activity felt much more insecure following a downsizing than did senior managers. Koesterer's sample was drawn from managerial occupations only; blue collar or other white collar professionals were not studied.

Common Elements of Employee Reaction

Several studies identified common elements among survivors' reactions to the downsizing they experienced and their resulting needs for security. All of the researchers cited in this investigation noted that the survivors' desire for justice, need for

communication from upper management, and the perception of how they and the laid off workers were treated affected the organization's future performance and worker morale. These elements are addressed in this section and will be further discussed in the Findings, Conclusions and Recommendations section at the end of this study.

In a study of employees at a computer software company that had recently undergone downsizing, Dunlap found that the survivors' work performance was strongly affected by the need for security, the desire for justice, and job enrichment. Dunlap categorized these survivors' needs for security into four areas: 1) level of protection, 2) level of communication from upper management, 3) change in organizational expectations, workloads, and responsibilities, and 4) level of contribution. Due to the survivors' uncertainty about their jobs, they spent time and effort trying to protect themselves from further downsizing. Survivors took on additional responsibilities or took training, whether fulfilling or not, in an effort to look indispensable in case another layoff occurred (Dunlap 1994).

Dunlap found the level of communication between upper management and the survivors was considered very important by the survivors. Lack of communication both before and after the downsizing left the survivors anxious, confused, angry, and insecure about the status of their jobs. All of Dunlap's subjects expressed uncertainty about what upper management expected from them. They wanted a clear sense of direction, duties, and responsibilities. Without this information, they felt unable to move through the needed change process to reach acceptance, involvement, and commitment to rebuilding the enterprise (Dunlap, 1994).

Both Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt (1984) and Dunlap (1994) found that survivors of downsizing tended to become extremely cautious because of their perceived job insecurity. They refused to take any chances that might put them at risk for losing their jobs in the next downsizing. Dunlap concluded that risk taking and innovation can disappear out of fear when insecure surviving employees are focused on protecting their individual positions and are unsure of management's expectations and plans. Level of effort and overall job performance suffer (Dunlap, 1994).

Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt (1984), Brockner (1992), Ashford et al. (1989) and many others have found that the desire for justice also impacts survivors' work performance. The survivors of a downsizing have their own perceptions of whether the layoffs were fair and whether management's explanation of the downsizing was just and could be trusted as truthful. Dunlap found that the perceptions of the survivors in her study were affected by three factors: 1) level of communication from upper management, 2) level of trust, and 3) organizational action. Failure to communicate explanations for the layoffs led to suspicion that upper management was not willing to disclose the reasons. After the layoffs, upper management's on-site presence was minimal, so they were not available to provide explanations for the layoffs and descriptions of the new company direction. Many of the survivors in her study described a change for the worse in their feelings of loyalty to the company and dedication to the job as a result of the way the layoffs were handled. A number of the employees indicated their perception that the downsizing was handled unfairly and that management had not taken any steps to ensure that downsizing would be avoided in the future (Dunlap, 1994).

Dunlap's subjects also indicated that job enrichment had an impact on their perceptions of their own work performance. They expressed their unhappiness with the organization based on how pleasurable and interesting their jobs were before the downsizing compared to how dull and unfulfilling they were after the downsizing. Employees found their new job responsibilities unfulfilling, and as a result, perceived their level of work performance as less than before the downsizing (Dunlap, 1994).

Dunlap described the survivors' feelings about how the layoffs were handled and the consequences for employee/employer relations in this way:

Because upper management handled the actual layoff process so abruptly, without explaining the situation to all of the employees throughout the process, the surviving employees were left feeling that the layoffs were not fair. Consequently, the employees' level of trust in the company declined, potentially affecting their level of effort and overall job performance.... Their level of effort changed not only because of the layoffs, but because of the way the organization handled the layoffs and the aftermath. Employees did not feel that their jobs were secure or that the layoffs were fair, and did not find their new job responsibilities fulfilling. Although job performance was not studied directly, the survivors' comments suggest that they believed the downsizing had a detrimental impact on the quality of their job performance (p. 104-105).

Summary of Literature Review

The literature indicates that while the topic of job insecurity has taken on increased importance in both the private and public sector, it has not received a great deal of research attention. Results from the few studies that have been conducted remain mixed. Some researchers find significant relationships, either positive or negative, where other researchers find no relationships. Although there appears to be no real consensus regarding the relationship of job insecurity to productivity and demographic factors, the research on the effect of job insecurity on employee mental and physical health is quite clear. Employees for whom job insecurity is either acute or chronic suffer from depression and bodily disturbances, both of which can result in absenteeism, lost productivity, and increased medical costs. The evidence is also quite strong that the survivors of a downsizing share common needs for justice, security, role clarification and honest and frequent communication from the organization. Some of the studies offered recommendations for strategies for coping with the aftermath of downsizing and will be referenced again in the final chapter.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Previous chapters have presented an introduction to the subject of job insecurity, the specific problem to be researched, the objectives of the study, and a review of the most relevant research conducted to date. This chapter presents the methodology used in the study. The following sections of the chapter describe the subjects, the instruments, the data collection process, and the method for processing the data.

The study was completed in two phases. The initial phase of the study consisted of informational briefings to company employees and the administration of the instrument to a randomly selected population. During the second phase of the study, quantitative and qualitative data collected through the instrument were analyzed using the Statistical Analysis System (SAS), a statistical software package.

Subjects

A list of all regular full-time and part-time employees was provided by the company's human resource department, from which the sample was randomly selected. There were approximately 500 employees in both white collar and blue collar professions at the time of the study; a random sample of 270 employees was surveyed.

About 60 percent of the total company workforce is female; about 40 percent is male. Individuals under 30 years of age form 20 percent of company employees; individuals between the ages of 30 and 40 make up about 19 percent of the workforce,

individuals between 41 and 50 years of age comprise about 31 percent; employees 50 and older constitute about 30 percent of employees.

Employees with less than five years of employment with the company make up about 41 percent of the workforce. The next largest group, employees with between five and ten years tenure with the company, comprise 31 percent of employees. Employees with more than ten years only make up 28 percent of the employee population.

Instrumentation

The Job Insecurity Scale (JIS) used in this study was adapted from research by Koesterer, (1994), whose instrument utilized research by Ashford, et al., (1989). This scale has been tested against two other survey instruments and found to be the best measure of job insecurity. The questionnaire is provided as Appendix A. The Job Insecurity Scale has three major component subscales: (1) the importance of the job's features and the threat to them ($\alpha=.74$), (2) the importance of the job itself and the threat to it ($\alpha=.75$), and (3) the feeling of powerlessness ($\alpha=.83$).

The instrument consists of a 57 item questionnaire. There are two 17-item subscales for the job features, two 10-item subscales for the job itself, and one 3-item subscale for the feeling of powerlessness component. All were scored using a 5 point Likert scale, with responses ranging from 5 (strongly agree or very important/likely) to 1 (strongly disagree or very unimportant/unlikely). An additional page to identify each respondent's demographic characteristics of age, gender, tenure, job status (salaried vs

hourly worker), educational level, income need, job change, relocation, and presence of internal social support was added to the instrument.

Scores for each component subscale are summed. The sums for the job features and the job itself are added and that total is multiplied by the powerlessness sum to determine the job insecurity score. Although the instrument has been validated in previous studies, a pilot study was performed to ensure its ease of use and application for this study. A randomly selected sample of 30 employees was used for the pilot study. Comments and suggestions obtained from the pilot were used to improve the final format of the questionnaire.

Materials

A cover letter explaining the purpose of the survey and encouraging participant response was provided to the selected sample members. Approval by company senior management was included in the letter, along with an assurance of anonymity. A requested return date was also included.

Procedure

Meetings were held with senior management and the supervisors who report directly to them to discuss the survey prior to commencement of the study. The researcher agreed to maintain the anonymity of the survey; that is, neither the company, specific organizations, nor individual participants would be identified by name. A presentation was made to several of the participating organizations and included the

following: introduction and background of the investigator, the nature of the study, its purpose, benefits, and basic facts. Assurances were given that presentations would be made to all requesting organizations at the conclusion of the study.

Participants were told that the study's purpose was to determine the presence or absence of feelings of job insecurity due to the recent downsizing and to make recommendations for strategies and programs to address such feelings to the extent that they exist. Participants were reassured that participation was strictly voluntary, that their anonymity would be maintained, and that all individual responses would be kept confidential. Distribution of the survey and return of the survey was through the plant mail system. Pre-addressed return envelopes were provided for those who preferred to respond outside the plant mail system.

A follow up letter (Appendix B) was sent to the entire survey sample to remind those who had not returned the sample to do so and thanking them if they had already responded. Sending to the entire sample reinforced the guarantee of anonymity. A second copy of the survey was included with the follow up letter.

Data Analysis

Information was extracted from the data using the Statistical Analysis System (SAS). Summary statistics were computed by calculating frequencies, percentiles, means, and standard deviations. Results were obtained for the sample population as a whole, and for two subgroups identified within the overall sample: 1) individuals whose score on the JIS was greater than or equal to 5438 (High JIS Score Group) and 2) individuals whose

score on the JIS was less than or equal to 2304 (Low JIS Score Group). The mean JIS score and standard deviation were added to find the JIS scores that were at least one standard deviation above the mean. The standard deviation was subtracted from the mean JIS score to find the JIS scores that fell at least one standard deviation below the mean. These two groups represent the individuals whose JIS score falls outside of one standard deviation from the mean and represent the extremes of the sample. The responses to the questions provided by these two groups were analyzed separately and compared for differences between them that might provide insights into the relationship among the variables.

A stepwise regression and a multiple regression were performed on all demographic variables separately and as a whole to determine their predictive power for job insecurity. T-tests were performed to test for statistically significant relationships between job insecurity scores and the demographic variables of gender, job classification, relocation, and social support. An analysis of variance was performed to determine the relationship between job insecurity scores and educational level, income need, and job changes. A Pearson r correlation was performed to determine the relationship between job insecurity scores and age and tenure.

Secondary Data Sources

Library material, articles, and professional journals were also researched. Advice on statistical testing was provided by Dr. Roger Haskell and a professional statistician.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS OF THE DATA ANALYSIS

The previous chapter described the methodology and instrument used for gathering the data needed for this study. This chapter presents and discusses the results of that data gathering. The data from the questionnaire were tallied by the researcher and entered into Statistical Analysis System (SAS), a statistical software package.

Descriptive statistics were used to summarize the demographic data by percent of responses. Demographic data were gathered on the overall population of the company as well as the sample surveyed, for the demographic factors of age, gender, length of tenure with the company, status as an exempt or non-exempt worker, and educational level.

Each demographic variable was examined for how reliable it was as a predictor of feelings of job insecurity, using a stepwise regression. All the demographic variables were examined as a whole for how reliable they were as a group predictor of job insecurity, using a multiple regression. A t-test and analysis of variance was performed on selected demographic variables to confirm the results of the multiple and stepwise regression.

A total of 204 (74 percent) of the 270 surveys were returned. Six of those were not used due to incomplete data. The lowest JIS score was 522 and the highest was 9594. In addition to responding to the survey's questions, many respondents wrote personal comments. Although a few respondents indicated encouragement and approval of the survey, many took the opportunity to express their anger and frustration with the company's downsizing, both its cause and the manner in which it had been accomplished.

Demographic Data

A comparison of the demographic profiles of the overall company population and the study sample is shown in Table 1. The ratio of men to women, the average employee age, average length of tenure, educational level, and the number of exempt and non-exempt employees in both groups are very close to the same. A comparison with the overall population on the demographic factors of income need, job change, relocation, and the presence of social support was not possible, as the company does not gather this kind of information on its employees.

High and Low JIS Groups' Scores

When the individual JIS scores were ranked from high to low, two distinct subgroups were found within the sample: 1) individuals whose JIS score was greater than or equal to 5438 (High JIS Score Group) and, 2) individuals whose JIS score was less than or equal to 2304 (Low JIS Score Group). These two groups represent the individuals whose JIS falls outside of one standard deviation above and below the mean and represent the extremes of the sample. A comparison between these two subgroups was deemed to be useful for attempting to find demographic differences between the two groups that might help explain the differences in their scores. Responses to individual survey questions for these two subgroups were examined for differences in the way these two groups rated the importance of, and threat to, specific job features and the job itself, and their feelings of powerlessness.

Table 1
Demographic Profile of Overall Population and Sample

Demographic Variable	Overall Population (n=505)	Sample (n=197)
Gender		
Male	195 (39%)	69 (35%)
Female	310 (61%)	128 (65%)
Average Age	41	41
Average Tenure	9	9
Educational Level		
Less than B.S. degree	239 (47%)	86 (44%)
Bachelor's Degree	126 (25%)	54 (27%)
Graduate Degree	140 (28%)	57 (29%)
Job Classification		
Exempt	300 (59%)	119 (60%)
Non-exempt	205 (41%)	78 (40%)
Percent of Household Income		
0-50%	-----	70 (35%)
51-75%	-----	57 (29%)
76%-100%	-----	70 (36%)
Job Change		
No change	-----	65 (33%)
New Responsibilities	-----	97 (49%)
New Job	-----	35 (18%)
Relocation		
No relocation	-----	178 (90%)
Did relocate	-----	19 (10%)
Social Support		
Support	-----	167 (85%)
No support	-----	30 (15%)

Table 2 provides data on each of the demographic variables for the High and Low JIS Score Groups. In comparing the responses of those who expressed the least job security (the High JIS Score Group) and those who expressed the most job security (the Low JIS Score Group), several demographic differences were noted. Women were much more likely to express feelings of job insecurity than men (76 percent vs 24 percent). Likewise those who were the least secure about their jobs tended to be older (41 vs 38 years), had less tenure (9 vs 14 years), and were more likely to hold a nonexempt job classification (33 percent vs 21 percent). Individuals expressing greater job insecurity tended to have less education (45 percent had less than a baccalaureate degree vs 24 percent), while more secure individuals typically had four or more years of higher education (76 percent vs 54 percent).

Less secure individuals seemed to have a greater dependence on the income from their jobs. More individuals in the High JIS Score Group reported contributing 76 percent to 100 percent of household income than did the Low JIS Score Group (36 percent vs 28 percent). However, in general the income contribution differences between the two groups appeared to be negligible.

More subjects in the High JIS Score Group reported keeping their same jobs, but receiving new responsibilities (56 percent vs 34 percent) as compared to Low JIS Score Group, more of whom reported keeping the same jobs (41 percent vs 27 percent). More individuals in the High JIS Score Group reported a lack of social support compared to the Low JIS Score Group (30 percent vs 17 percent). Differences in relocation between the two groups were negligible.

Table 2

Demographic Profile of High and Low JIS Score Groups

Demographic Variable	High JIS Score Group (n=33)	Low JIS Score Group (n=29)
Gender		
Male	8 (24%)	17 (59%)
Female	25 (76%)	12 (41%)
Average Age	41	38
Average Tenure	9	14
Educational Level		
Less than B.S. Degree	15 (45%)	7 (24%)
B.S. Degree	8 (24%)	9 (31%)
Graduate Degree	10 (30%)	13 (45%)
Job Classification		
Exempt	22 (67%)	23 (79%)
Non-exempt	11 (33%)	6 (21%)
Percent of Household Income		
0-50%	11 (34%)	9 (31%)
51-75%	10 (30%)	12 (41%)
76%-100%	12 (36%)	8 (28%)
Job Change		
No change	9 (27%)	12 (41%)
New Responsibilities	18 (56%)	10 (34%)
New Job	6 (18%)	7 (24%)
Relocation		
No relocation	29 (88%)	28 (97%)
Did relocate	4 (12%)	1 (3%)
Social Support		
Support	23 (70%)	24 (83%)
No support	10 (30%)	5 (17%)

The picture of a typical member of the High JIS Score Group is that of an exempt female employee, aged 41, probably with four years or less of post-high school education, and likely to be contributing a somewhat higher percentage of household income than a member of the Low JIS Score Group. In contrast, the average member of the Low JIS Score Group is more likely to be male, aged 38, possessing four or more years of post-high school education, and likely to be contributing a somewhat lower percentage of household income than a member of the High JIS Score Group.

Two demographic factors were found to be significantly related to JIS scores: 1) gender and 2) social support. These data are shown in the next two tables. Table 3 compares the JIS mean scores, R Square and *t*-test values for gender. The results indicate that on average, women in the sample expressed significantly more job insecurity than did their male counterparts ($p < .05$). Moreover, the stepwise regression for gender showed it to be a significant but not dramatically strong predictor of job insecurity. The R Square value for gender (.04) showed that only 4 percent of the variation in JIS scores could be predicted by gender, making it difficult to use gender to predict the level of job insecurity that exists between male and female employees.

Table 3

JIS Mean, Standard Deviation, R Square and t-test Values for Gender

Gender	JIS Mean	S.D.	R Square	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Males (n=69)	3443.68	1465.56	.04	-2.93	< .05
Females (n=128)	4102.70	1577.65			

Table 4 provides the JIS score means, standard deviations, and *t*-test value for social support. The *t*-test showed a statistically significant relationship between social support and JIS scores. On average, individuals who reported having someone within the company with whom they could share their feelings expressed significantly less job insecurity than those who did not have such social support. However, the stepwise regression showed that social support, like gender, was not a strong predictor of job insecurity.

Although only gender and social support were found to be statistically significant as predictors of JIS scores, as shown in Tables 3 and 4, the demographic data previously discussed in Table 2 would seem to indicate that a combination of factors, i.e. higher educational levels, longer tenure, and less reliance on the income from their jobs, may make workers feel more secure in their jobs. Common sense logic would suggest as much. Moreover, many individuals in the Low JIS Score Group indicated in their written comments that they had seen cycles in the level of funding in Oak Ridge in the past, and that the current situation was likely to change for the better at some future point. These comments will be discussed in more detail later in this chapter.

Table 4

JIS Mean, Standard Deviation, R Square and t-test Values for Social Support

Social Support	JIS Mean	S.D.	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Support (n=167)	3794.17	1508.05	-1.44	< .05
No Support (n=30)	4304.43	1833.45		

Analysis of Mean Responses

The mean responses were ranked from high to low in order to obtain each group's internal ranking of the importance of the job's features and changes to the job itself, the perception of threat, and feelings of powerlessness. In addition, a comparison of the differences in perception between the two groups was performed by measuring the differences in mean responses and testing them for significance. The results of this analysis provided information on which job features, changes to the job itself, and feelings of powerlessness were ranked significantly differently by the two groups.

Rank Order of Mean Responses

Rank ordering the mean responses for each question provided a way to separately consider the two groups' perceptions about the importance of certain job features. The first subscale, Job Features, contained 17 questions. Respondents were asked to respond to the importance of each of these job features, using a five point Likert scale. Tables 5 and 6 present these mean rank orderings. Table 5 presents data regarding the perceived importance of these job features as ranked internally within each group, while Table 6 presents data regarding the differences in perceived importance between the two groups.

Within the High JIS Score Group, the three most important job features centered around monetary reward: 1) getting periodic pay increases, 2) maintaining current pay, and 3) promotional opportunities.

Table 5

Internal Ranking of Job Feature Importance for the High and Low JIS Score Groups

Rank	Job Feature	High JIS Score Group		Rank	Job Feature	Low JIS Score Group	
		Mean	(n=33)			Mean	(n=29)
1	Periodic Pay Increases	4.85		1	Periodic Pay Increases	4.10	
2	Maintain Current Pay	4.73		3	Significance of Job	3.90	
3	Promotional Opportunities	4.61		3	Freedom to Do Work	3.90	
4	Good Co-Workers	4.58		3	Geographic Location	3.90	
5	Significance of Job	4.55		5.5	Maintaining Current Pay	3.86	
7	Immediate Feedback	4.48		5.5	Access to Resources	3.86	
7	Performance Feedback	4.48		7	Immediate Feedback	3.83	
7	Access to Resources	4.48		8.5	Control Own Work Schedule	3.79	
9	Freedom to Do Work As See Fit	4.42		8.5	Variety of Tasks	3.79	
10	Variety of Tasks	4.36		10	Good Co-Workers	3.76	
11	Quality of Supervision	4.33		11	Promotional Opportunities	3.69	
12	Geographic Location	4.27		12	Quality of Supervision	3.55	
13	Control Own Work Schedule	4.18		13	Performance Feedback	3.48	
14	Complete Work Start to End	4.06		14	Organizational Position	3.28	
15	Physical Demands of the Job	4.00		15	Physical Demands of Job	3.24	
16	Organizational Position	3.94		16	Interaction with the Public	3.03	
17	Interaction With the Public	3.64		17	Complete Work Start to End	3.00	

$r = .82$ with 15 *df*; $p < .001$

Table 6

Differences in Mean Response for Job Feature Importance As Perceived by the High and Low JIS Score Groups

Rank	Job Features	Mean		Difference		p	S.D.	
		High JIS Score Score Group (n=33)	Low JIS Score Group (n=29)	Between Means	t		High JIS Score Group	Low JIS Score Group
1	Complete Work Start to Finish	4.06	3.00	(1.06)	3.84	.000	.90	1.22
2	Performance Feedback	4.48	3.48	(1.00)	3.85	.004	.57	1.30
3	Promotional Opportunities	4.61	3.69	(.92)	3.70	.001	.56	1.23
4	Maintaining Current Pay	4.73	3.86	(.87)	3.49	.001	.52	1.25
5	Quality of Supervision	4.33	3.55	(.78)	3.03	.004	.78	1.18
6	Physical Demands of Job	4.00	3.24	(.76)	2.91	.006	.97	1.21
7.	Periodic Pay Increases	4.85	4.10	(.75)	3.18	.003	.44	1.26
8.	Organizational Position	3.94	3.28	(.66)	Not significant		.79	1.10
9.5	Significance of Job	4.55	3.90	(.65)	2.89	.006	.51	1.11
9.5	Immediate Feedback	4.48	3.83	(.65)	3.02	.004	.51	1.10
11	Access to Resources	4.48	3.86	(.62)	2.49	.017	.62	1.22
12	Interaction With Public	3.64	3.03	(.61)	Not significant		.92	1.40
13	Good Co-Worker Community	4.58	3.76	(.61)	2.94	.006	.57	1.38
14	Variety of Tasks	4.36	3.79	(.57)	2.33	.024	.70	1.14
15	Freedom to Do Work As See Fit	4.42	3.90	(.52)	2.16	.037	.56	1.21
16	Control Own Work Schedule	4.18	3.79	(.39)	Not significant		.73	1.21
17	Geographic location	4.27	3.90	(.37)	Not significant		.80	1.17

Within the Low JIS Score Group, the three top slots for importance were occupied by six job features. Two involved monetary issues, one concerned the value of the work performed, two were related to the employee's autonomy in performing work and geographic location, and one concerned having the resources for performing their work. Ranked as most important were: 1) periodic pay increases, 2) the significance of the job, the freedom to do their work as they see fit and geographic location, and 3) maintaining current pay and access to resources.

Both groups' internal rankings of the least important job features were somewhat similar. Within the High JIS Score Group, the three job features ranked least important were: 3) the physical demands of the job, 2) organizational position, and 1) interaction with the public. Within the Low JIS Score Group, the three job features ranked least important were: 3) physical demands of the job, 2) interaction with the public, and 1) being able to complete their work from start to finish. As shown in Table 5, this comparison indicated a considerable amount of congruence between the High and Low JIS Score Groups' views of what job features were most important to them ($r = .82$, with 14 *df*; $p < .001$).

Subtracting the response means for the Low JIS Score Group from the High JIS Score Group's response means provided a means for rank ordering the differences between the two groups for importance of the job features. Each of these mean differences was then tested for statistical significance, using a *t*-test. The results of this analysis are shown in Table 6. A significant difference between the two groups was found

for all but four of the job features examined, thus although the two groups' internal rankings for the job features were very similar, Table 6 shows that the High JIS Score Group consistently gave significantly higher numerical mean values to most of the job features, rating all but two as "important to very important". In contrast, the Low JIS Score Group gave mean ratings ranging from "neither important nor unimportant" to "important." In addition, the standard deviation scores for these two groups indicate much more agreement among the members of the High JIS Score Group than the Low JIS Score Group.

Table 7 presents data regarding the group's internal rankings for perceived threat for these job features, while Table 8 presents data regarding the differences between the two groups' perception of the threat. In Table 7, little congruence is seen between the two groups on which job features were the most threatened ($r = .32$ with 14 *df*; n.s.). Within the High JIS Score Group, the top three threats of negative changes to their jobs' features were represented by four job features, two of which received the same ranking. They saw the top three threats as being to non-monetary aspects of their jobs: 1) the job's significance, 2) good co-workers and physical demands of the job, and 3) the variety of tasks. In contrast, within the Low JIS Score Group, the two of the top three threats of negative changes to their jobs' features centered around monetary issues and one involved the employees' inner valuation of their jobs: 1) promotional opportunities, 2) maintaining current pay and periodic pay increases, and 3) the significance of the job. The threat of negative changes to the job features of geographic location and interaction with the public received similarly low rankings for both groups.

Table 7

Internal Ranking for Threat to Job Features for the High and Low JIS Score Groups

High JIS Score Group			Low JIS Score Group		
Rank	Job Feature	Mean (n=33)	Rank	Job Feature	Mean (n=29)
1	Significance of Job	4.42	1	Promotional Opportunities	2.86
2.5	Good Co-Workers	4.36	2.5	Maintaining Current Pay	2.72
2.5	Physical Demands of Job	4.36	2.5	Periodic Pay Increases	2.72
4	Variety of Tasks	4.33	4	Significance of the Job	2.62
5	Freedom to Do Work	4.24	5.5	Organizational Position	2.59
6.5	Periodic Pay Increases	4.15	5.5	Access to Resources	2.59
6.5	Access to Resources	4.15	7	Good Co-Workers	2.55
8.5	Organizational Position	4.09	8.5	Control Own Work Schedule	2.48
8.5	Complete Work Start to End	4.09	8.5	Quality of Supervision	2.48
10	Maintaining Current Pay	4.06	10	Complete Work Start to End	2.45
11	Control Own Work Schedule	4.00	11.5	Freedom to Do Work as See Fit	2.41
12.5	Quality of Supervision	3.91	11.5	Variety of Tasks	2.41
12.5	Immediate Feedback	3.91	12.5	Performance Feedback	2.38
14	Performance Feedback	3.82	12.5	Immediate Feedback	2.38
15	Promotional Opportunities	3.70	15	Physical Demands of Job	2.28
16	Geographic Location	3.64	16	Interaction with the Public	2.24
17	Interaction with the Public	3.36	17	Geographic Location	2.10

$r = .32$ with 15 *df*; n.s.

Table 8

Differences in Threat to Job Features As Perceived by High and Low JIS Score Groups

Rank	<u>Job Features</u>	<u>Mean</u>		Difference Between Means	t	p	<u>S.D.</u>	
		High JIS Score Group (n=33)	Low JIS Score Group (n=29)				High JIS Score Group	Low JIS Score Group
1	Physical Demands of Job	4.36	2.28	(2.08)	8.10	.000	.86	1.13
2	Variety of Tasks	4.33	2.41	(1.92)	7.32	.000	.78	1.21
3	Freedom to Do Work As See Fit	4.24	2.41	(1.83)	7.26	.000	.87	1.10
4	Significance of Job	4.42	2.62	(1.80)	6.34	.000	.83	1.32
5	Good Co-Worker Community	4.36	2.55	(1.81)	6.74	.000	.74	1.27
6	Complete Work Start to End	4.09	2.45	(1.64)	5.57	.000	.84	1.38
7	Access to Resources	4.15	2.59	(1.56)	5.77	.000	.87	1.21
8	Geographic location	3.64	2.10	(1.54)	5.27	.000	1.14	1.14
9	Immediate Feedback	3.91	2.38	(1.53)	5.80	.000	.98	1.08
10	Control Own Work Schedule	4.00	2.48	(1.52)	5.67	.000	.83	1.21
11	Organizational Position	4.09	2.59	(1.50)	5.53	.000	1.01	1.12
12.	Performance Feedback	3.82	2.38	(1.44)	4.95	.000	.98	1.27
13.5	Quality of Supervision	3.91	2.48	(1.43)	4.78	.000	1.01	1.30
13.5	Periodic Pay Increases	4.15	2.72	(1.43)	5.04	.000	.97	1.22
15	Maintaining Current Pay	4.06	2.72	(1.34)	4.39	.000	1.06	1.31
16	Interaction With Public	3.36	2.24	(1.12)	4.27	.000	.96	1.10
17	Promotional Opportunities	3.70	2.86	(.84)	2.42	.019	1.36	1.36

There were some differences between the two groups worth noting. The High JIS Score Group ranked the threat to promotional opportunities very low (fifteenth) relative to the other job features, whereas the Low JIS Score Group gave it the highest ranking. Similarly, the Low JIS Score Group gave one of its lowest rankings to physical demands of the job, where the High JIS Score Group ranked it third in perceived threat. This finding may be somewhat explained by the written comments of many respondents who indicated that their hours and workload had increased since the downsizing began.

A correlation coefficient between the mean responses of the two groups confirmed that there was little congruence between the perceptions of the two groups with regard to the job features that are most likely to be threatened ($r = .32$ with 15 *df*; n.s.)

When the response means for the Low JIS Score Group were subtracted from the High JIS Score Group's and tested for statistical significance, significant differences in the two groups' perception of threat were found for each of the job features. The High JIS Score Group consistently gave higher mean values for threat to all the job features than did the Low JIS Score Group. The High JIS Score Group, who were the most insecure about their jobs, rated the likelihood of negative changes happening to most of the job features as "somewhat likely". In contrast, the Low JIS Score Group, who were the most secure about their jobs, tended to give "probably unlikely" ratings for threat to the job features. Again, the standard deviation scores for these two groups indicated much more agreement among the members of the High JIS Score Group than the Low JIS Score Group.

The second subscale, the Job Itself, contained 10 questions concerning the importance of changes to each individual's specific job and how likely changes were in terms of the individual's survival in the job (e.g. demotions, layoffs, promotions, etc). Table 9 presents the data regarding the importance of the changes to the job, as ranked internally within the two groups. Table 10 presents the data relating to the differences in perception of importance between the two groups.

As noted in Table 9, the top three important changes to the job itself for the High JIS Score Group and the Low JIS Score Group were somewhat similar. Within the High JIS Score Group, the top three perceived changes were: 1) future uncertainty of their department or division, 2) personally being downgraded and permanent layoff, and 3) fluctuation in hours. Within the Low JIS Score Group, the top three important changes were 1) being fired, 2) future uncertainty of their department or division, and 3) being personally downgraded to a lower level. Being downgraded to a lower level was closely followed by permanent layoff, ranked fourth by the Low JIS Score Group. The bottom three rankings for both groups were also somewhat similar. Both groups ranked short-term layoff and early retirement pressure as being of low importance. The High JIS Score Group consistently ranked the importance of the job changes as "important" to "very important" categories, while most of the Low JIS Score Group's rankings fell into the "neither important nor unimportant" category. A moderate amount of congruence was found between the two groups' perceptions of the relative importance of the changes to their jobs ($r = .66$ with 8 *df*; $p < .05$).

Table 9

Internal Ranking of Importance of Changes to Job for the High and Low JIS Score Groups

Rank	Importance of <u>Job Change</u>	High JIS Score Group Mean	Rank	Importance of <u>Job Change</u>	Low JIS Score Group Mean
1	Dept. Future Uncertainty	4.97	1	Fired	4.24
2.5	Downgraded Lower	4.91	2	Dept. Future Uncertainty	4.06
2.5	Permanent Layoff	4.91	3	Downgraded Lower	3.79
4	Fluctuation in Hours	4.70	4	Permanent Layoff	3.76
5	Fired	4.64	5	Fluctuation in Hours	3.66
6	Promoted, Same Location	4.55	6	Promoted, Different Location	3.62
8	New Job, Same Level	4.24	7	Promoted, Same Location	3.24
8	Short-term Layoff	4.24	8	Early Retirement Pressure	3.14
8	Early Retirement Pressure	4.24	9	Short-term Layoff	3.13
10	Promoted, Different Location	4.03	10	New Job, Same Level	3.10

$r = .66$ with 8 *df*; $p < .05$

Table 10

Differences in Importance of Changes to Job As Perceived by the High and Low JIS Score Groups

Rank	Importance of <u>Job Change</u>	<u>Mean</u>		Difference In	<u>t</u>	<i>p</i>	<u>S.D.</u>	
		High JIS Score Group (n=33)	Low JIS Score Group (n=29)				High JIS Score Group	Low JIS Score Group
1.	Promoted, Same Location	4.55	3.24	(1.31)	4.11	.000	1.15	1.32
2.	Permanent Layoff	4.91	3.76	(1.15)	3.61	.001	2.92	1.24
3.	New Job, Same Level	4.24	3.10	(1.14)	4.24	.000	.75	1.26
4.	Downgraded Lower	4.91	3.79	(1.12)	4.37	.000	.29	1.35
5.	Short-term Layoff	4.24	3.13	(1.11)	4.87	.000	1.42	1.60
6.	Early Retirement Pressure	4.24	3.14	(1.10)	2.86	.006	1.41	1.60
7.	Fluctuation in Hours	4.70	3.66	(1.04)	4.14	.000	.53	1.26
8.	Dept. Future Uncertainty	4.97	4.06	(.91)	3.93	.000	.17	1.22
9.	Promoted, Different Location	4.03	3.62	(.41)	Not significant		1.53	1.52
10.	Fired	4.64	4.24	(.40)	Not significant		1.14	1.35

When the response means for the Low JIS Score Group were subtracted from those of the High JIS Score Group, all but two of these differences were found to be statistically significant, as shown in Table 10. The two groups were closest in their perception of the importance of being promoted in a different location and being fired, the two changes for which no significant differences were observed. In contrast to the previous findings for job feature importance, the standard deviation scores for the High JIS Score Group reflect less agreement among its members than those of the Low JIS Score Group.

The relative ranking of the perceived likelihood of changes to the job (threat) by mean response is quite similar within the High JIS Score Group and the Low JIS Score Group. Table 11 presents data regarding the perceived likelihood of these job changes as ranked internally within the two groups, while Table 12 presents data regarding the differences in perceived likelihood between the two groups.

In both groups, the top four slots were occupied by: 1) future uncertainty of the department or division, 2) permanent layoff, 3) short-term layoff, and 4) fluctuation in hours. Two job changes ranked lowest in likelihood were the same for both groups, although their relative rankings were different: being promoted in a different location, and being promoted in the same location. Again, a computing correlation coefficient confirmed the fact that there was considerable congruence between the perceptions of the two groups with regard to the likelihood that the job changes will occur ($r = .89$ with 8 *df*; $p < .001$).

Table 11

Internal Ranking of Likelihood of Changes to Job for the High and Low JIS Score Groups

Rank	Likelihood of <u>Job Change</u>	High JIS Score Group Mean	Rank	Likelihood of <u>Job Change</u>	Low JIS Score Group Mean
1	Dept. Future Uncertainty	4.61	1	Dept. Future Uncertainty	3.00
2	Permanent Layoff	4.27	2	Permanent Layoff	2.83
3	Short-term Layoff	4.21	3	Short-term Layoff	2.69
4	Fluctuation in Hours	4.03	4	Fluctuation in Hours	2.52
5	Downgraded Lower	3.61	5	New Job, Same Level	2.45
6	New Job, Same Level	3.39	6	Downgraded Lower	2.17
7	Early Retirement Pressure	2.46	7	Fired	2.10
8	Fired	2.03	8	Promoted, Same Location	2.03
9	Promoted, Different Location	1.88	9.5	Early Retirement Pressure	1.66
10	Promoted, Same Location	1.78	9.5	Promoted, Different Location	1.66

$r = .89$ with 8 *df*; $p < .001$

Table 12

Differences in Likelihood of Changes to Job As Perceived by the High and Low JIS Score Groups

Rank	Likelihood of Job Changes	Mean		Difference Between Means		p	S.D.	
		High JIS Score Group (n=33)	Low JIS Score Group (n=29)				High JIS Score Group	Low JIS Score Group
1	Dept. Future Uncertainty	4.61	3.00	(1.61)	5.40	.000	.75	1.44
2	Short-term Layoff	4.21	2.69	(1.52)	5.89	.000	.86	1.14
3	Fluctuation in Hours	4.03	2.52	(1.51)	5.36	.000	1.02	1.18
4.5	Downgraded Lower	3.61	2.17	(1.44)	5.35	.000	1.14	.97
4.5	Permanent Layoff	4.27	2.83	(1.44)	5.43	.000	.84	1.97
6	New Job, Same Level	3.39	2.45	(.94)	2.93	.005	1.39	1.15
7	Early Retirement Pressure	2.46	1.66	(.80)	2.50	.015	1.46	1.04
8	Promoted, Different Location	1.88	1.66	(.22)	Not significant		1.11	.72
9	Promoted, Same Location	1.78	2.03	-. (25)	Not significant		1.14	.82
10	Fired	2.03	2.10	-. (.07)	Not significant		1.42	1.29

Significant differences between the two groups were found for the perception of threat for all but three of the possible job changes as shown in Table 12. The two groups were closest in their perception of the likelihood of being fired and being promoted. For both groups, the chances of being promoted in the downsized environment appear to be perceived as low. For the most part, the High JIS Score Group gave higher ratings to the likelihood of job changes than did the Low JIS Score Group.

The High JIS Score Group's ratings were almost evenly divided between the "neither likely nor unlikely" to "somewhat likely" categories and the "very unlikely to probably unlikely" categories. In contrast, the preponderance of the Low JIS Score Groups' rankings ranged from "very unlikely" to "probably unlikely," indicating a more optimistic outlook. Once again, the standard deviation scores indicate more consensus among the members of the High JIS Score Group than the Low JIS Score Group.

The third subscale, Feelings of Powerlessness, contained three questions concerning individuals' feelings of not being able to control events that affect their jobs (powerlessness). Table 13 presents data regarding the differences in feelings of powerlessness between the High JIS Score Group and the Low JIS Score Group. When the response means for the Low JIS Score Group were subtracted from those of the High JIS Score Group, all differences between the two groups' mean responses were found to be statistically significant for each of the three questions. Those who were most insecure about their jobs consistently reported significantly greater feelings of powerless than did those who were most secure, giving ratings of "disagree" to "strongly disagree", when asked if they could control events and negative things, personally or through their

understanding of the organization. In contrast, the Low JIS Score Group's rankings of "agree" indicated they felt a higher degree of control over events and a higher degree of organizational understanding, although some of their rankings bordered on the "neither agree nor disagree" category. The standard deviation scores indicate a higher degree of consensus among the members of the High JIS Score Group than that of the Low JIS Score Group.

Table 13

Differences in Feelings of Powerlessness As Perceived by High and Low JIS Score Groups

<u>Feelings of Powerlessness</u>	High JIS Score Group (n=33)	<u>Mean</u> Low JIS Score Group (n=29)	Difference Between Means	t	p	<u>S.D.</u>	
						High JIS Score Group (n=33)	Low JIS Score Group (n=29)
Can Control Events That Might Affect My Job	4.67	2.51	(2.16)	9.94	.000	.60	1.02
Can Prevent Negative Things From Affecting My Job	4.51	2.89	(1.62)	10.62	.000	.45	1.06
Understand Organization Well Enough To Control Things	4.51	2.90	(1.61)	6.08	.000	1.00	1.08
Total Mean	4.64	2.63	(2.01)	14.89	.000	.72	1.06

A t-test was also performed to test for significant differences between the means of each group's total scores for all three questions. This analysis supported the findings for the individual questions considered separately; a significant difference between the two groups overall for feelings of powerlessness ($t = 14.89$, $p < .000$) was found.

Comments

A blank page was included in the survey to allow respondents to write comments. Of the 197 respondents, 62 (31 percent) chose to provide comments. Of the 33

individuals in the High JIS Score Group, 14 (42 percent) wrote comments, while of the 29 Low JIS Score Group members, 12 (41 percent) included personal comments. The comments from the Low and High JIS Score Groups will be described separately from the comments provided by individuals whose JIS scores fell outside of these two groups (middle range).

The middle range group's comments centered around issues of morale, trust, injustice, and powerlessness. Employees wrote of feeling that the layoffs were done unfairly and that the rationale for the layoffs was never communicated clearly. Lacking any other reasons provided by management for the layoffs, many employees perceived that "who you know" counted a lot more than "how hard you worked." Some employees felt it was not safe to ask questions or speak out about their feelings that the layoffs were unfair, fearing such actions would make them targets for the next layoff. Others wrote that insecurity caused some employees to try to make themselves "indispensable" by not training others, effectively reducing opportunities for the other employees' development. For several employees, flattening of the organization meant lack of opportunity to advance while receiving more and more responsibilities. Several of the respondents expressed frustration with the company's organizational and overhead structure. They perceived the staff as being "top heavy" with high overhead costs that prevented the company from being competitive.

The High JIS Score Group's comments focused mainly on loss of morale and to a somewhat lesser degree on the perception that the layoffs had unfairly targeted the lower levels of employees. Some older employees felt the "contract" between themselves and

the company for a secure lifetime job (similar to that of their parents' generation), had been broken. One employee summed up the overall flavor of the comments by saying that it was very hard to strive toward improving procedures and processes or to plan for the future under "the heavy cloud of uncertainty of continued employment."

The Low JIS Score Group's comments had a different, more positive tone. These respondents tended not to focus on what was happening to the organization, but rather on their own talents and ability to make a living outside of the company. They did not see their successes or destinies as being dependent on remaining with the company. A smaller number indicated that they had no real financial needs, and indicated this factor contributed to their sense of security.

CHAPTER V

FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

As noted in Chapter 1, downsizing has become increasingly common among companies as a means of increasing their competitive positions. This trend to downsizing has had a negative effect in terms of employee motivation and morale among the survivors of these layoffs. Lower motivation and morale frequently result in lower employee productivity, which results in loss of customer base, which in turn leads to more layoffs. This begins the process over again, resulting in a downward cycle that may eventually lead to the company's collapse. Future productivity and success depend on reducing job insecurity and maintaining positive attitudes held by the remaining employees.

The purpose of this study was to identify the level of job insecurity among employees at a company which had undergone significant downsizing over a two year period, and to identify demographic characteristics could be used to predict job insecurity. Such an identification would allow the company to implement programs and strategies for maintaining morale and productivity for the groups most at risk for job insecurity.

The review of the literature presented in Chapter 2 revealed that results from the studies that have been conducted were mixed. Some researchers found significant relationships, either positive or negative, where other researchers found no relationships. Although no real consensus regarding the relationship of job insecurity to productivity and demographic factors was found, the research on the effect of job insecurity on employee mental and physical health was well documented. Employees with acute or chronic job

insecurity suffer from depression and bodily disturbances, both of which can result in absenteeism, lost productivity, and increased medical costs. The literature also showed that the survivors of a downsizing share common needs for justice, security, role clarification and honest and frequent communication from the organization.

As detailed in Chapter 3, the survey was conducted so as to ensure complete anonymity. The employees surveyed were randomly selected from all levels of the company and represented a demographic profile characteristic of the overall company, as shown in Chapter 4. Both a quantitative and a qualitative analysis was performed on the data, and an analysis of the data and its statistical significance was presented. This chapter will compare this study's findings to those of other researchers and make recommendations based on the experiences of other downsized companies to increase feelings of job security among its employees.

Findings

The major findings of this study are as follows:

1. Two demographic factors, gender and social support were found to be significant with respect to job insecurity; however they were not strong predictors of job insecurity.
2. The least secure employees (the High JIS Score Group) were female, and had lower levels of education and more economic dependence on their jobs than the most secure employees. Greater numbers of the least secure employees had also received new job responsibilities.

3. The least secure employees (the High JIS Score Group) and the most secure employees (the Low JIS Score Group) showed a considerable degree of congruence in their groups' internal rankings of the job features which were the most important to them, but little congruence was found between the two groups' perceptions of the threat to those job features.
4. A moderate amount of congruence was found between the High JIS Score Group and the Low JIS Score Group's internal rankings for the importance of certain changes to their jobs, either positive or negative; however, a considerable amount of congruence was found between the two groups' perceptions of which changes were most likely to occur.
5. Those employees least secure about their jobs (the High JIS Score Group) consistently reported significantly greater feelings of powerlessness than did those who were the most secure (the Low JIS Score Group).
6. The written comments of the employees in this study reflect feelings of job insecurity based on a perception that they were kept uninformed about the issues surrounding the downsizing and that the company, as currently structured, is in serious decline.

Conclusions

Employees in this study expressed varying degrees of job insecurity, with women and individuals without social support expressing significantly higher feelings of job insecurity than other employees. Although these differences were statistically significant,

the relationships were not strong enough to be able to predict how much higher these feelings of job insecurity would be. The finding that social support is linked with lower levels of job insecurity is, however, supported by studies by Ashford (1988) and Lim (1996), although not by Koesterer's (1994) research.

The differences between individuals who expressed the least job security (the High JIS Score Group) and individuals who expressed the most job security (the Low JIS Score Group) provided some clues as to why one group was more insecure than the other. In terms of demographic data, the least secure employees tended to be females in exempt positions, with lower levels of education, and who were contributing a fairly high percentage of household income. The most secure individuals tended to be males in exempt positions, who had more education, and who were contributing a lower percentage of household income. This finding tends to be supported both by Orpen (1993) who found that individuals who were more dependent economically on their jobs tended to feel more insecure than individuals who were not so dependent, and Hutchinson (1994) who found that individuals with less education and lower wages were more likely to be insecure in their jobs.

Although the High JIS Score Group and the Low JIS Score Group shared similar views on the importance of many job features, the High JIS Score Group ranked all job features (particularly those of a monetary nature), higher in importance and as more threatened than did the Low JIS Score Group. It is possible that the High JIS Score Group's higher feelings of job insecurity make it difficult for them to rate any job feature as unimportant or not at risk.

Although differences were even more noticeable between the two groups when they were asked about the importance of changes to their jobs, their perception of the threat of those changes was remarkably similar. One job change in particular was ranked highest by both groups: the uncertainty of their department or division. In Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt's 1984 study, perception of organizational decline was noted as the most important source of threat, causing tremendous feelings of job insecurity due to employees' fears that their jobs would be lost if the company lost market share. Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt also noted increased turnover among the most valuable employees during perceived organizational decline. This finding has been borne out by the large number of highly skilled information systems employees in the company under study, who left for jobs with more security and better pay after the downsizing began. As with the job features, the High JIS Score Group generally saw the threat of changes as significantly more likely to occur than did the Low JIS Score Group. Again, this may indicate the High JIS Score Group's higher feelings of job insecurity prevented them from being able to see any changes as less likely than the Low JIS Score Group did. The fact that both groups see promotional opportunities as unlikely in the company may increase their propensity to leave, particularly for the Low JIS Score Group who ranked promotional opportunities high in importance.

Duron's study (1993) not only showed employees felt less productive after a downsizing but that a decline in morale among employees also had resulted. Certainly this finding was supported by the written comments of the employees in this study. Many of them expressed a perception that the company did not care about them and would lay

them off regardless of the quality of their work, if funding were reduced. Several employees' comments, particularly among the High JIS Score Group, expressed a sense of powerlessness concerning events that might affect their jobs, noting that no one could control what the Department of Energy chose to do with its contractors. These comments were also supported by a 1989 study by Ashford et al., which found that a perception of a lack of predictability and control caused employees to feel more insecure. Although no comments directly addressed specific physical or mental problems due to the downsizing, many employees did comment on the increased overall mental stress, longer work hours, and heavier responsibilities. As indicated in the literature previously cited, the effects of job insecurity on physical and mental health are well documented. Employees at this company may be at serious risk for health problems, with a resulting negative consequence for medical benefit costs to the company.

Several employees in the study commented that they were now doing the work of two people, due to layoffs within the company. This finding was also supported by Ashford et al (1989) who reported that employees who were faced with new responsibilities exhibited increased job insecurity. Employees also reported a lack of time on their supervisor's part to help them develop in their jobs and to direct their work. However, the greatest number of comments concerned the anger and frustration employees felt about the downsizing: its causes and the way it was implemented. Most of these comments centered around two themes: a perception of a lack of communication by senior management and a perception that the company's staff was top heavy resulting in high overhead costs that detracted from the company's competitive position.

Lack of communication was identified as a major contributor to feelings of job insecurity by many of the researchers previously cited, particularly Dunlap (1994). The survivors she studied reported little explanation by top management of how they planned to prevent future layoffs. This sentiment was echoed in the comments of the employees in this study who, in the absence of any solid information from management, reported an inability to concentrate on anything but efforts to find other jobs or to find ways to protect their existing jobs. As with Dunlap's subjects, the survivors in this study indicated their perception that other employees were protecting information and resources in an effort to appear indispensable.

Many employees expressed a sense of unfairness in the way the downsizing was handled. As noted in the literature earlier, a sense of injustice is one of the most common reactions to downsizing. In the perception of the survivors in this study, hard-working co-workers were dismissed, increasing the survivors' work loads, while upper management was retained in their positions. Quite a few of the survivors expressed a sense of dismay at the dissolution of the perceived company "family," a term that had been in common usage in the company for much of its history. Many of the survivors indicated that their loyalty to the company's management had declined, but that they still cared about the company itself. This ability by the survivors to perceive the company as a separate entity from its management may indicate a longing to remain with the company, but a strong desire for new leadership.

Recommendations

Based on the analysis of the quantitative and qualitative data in this study, it is apparent that feelings of job insecurity do exist in this company, and that those feelings, left unaddressed, may have serious economic consequences for the company. The company may continue to suffer "brain drain," incur increased costs for medical benefits, or suffer a loss of employee productivity. Although the statistical results do not support an attempt to target specific demographic groups for intervention, a case can be made that some broad interventions used by other companies to help deal with survivor syndrome and to alleviate feelings of job insecurity can be used effectively in this situation.

The issues for this company center around a lack of communication and a sense of injustice concerning the layoffs. These issues must be addressed in order to re-establish employees' feelings of security and loyalty and their belief in the organization's sense of fairness and justice. Providing information, increasing their sense of personal control, and giving them personal attention can all help survivors' cope with feelings of job insecurity.

Provide Information. Many of the researchers cited earlier recommended providing information openly and regularly. When survivors feel well informed about downsizing events, their feelings of job security increase, and when rational explanations are provided, their sense of justice is not as insulted. Employees always discuss what they think is going on in the organization. When employees do not have solid information, rumors will proliferate, and employees will spend all their time talking about the latest rumor. Rumors are inevitably more pessimistic than optimistic. If employees are occupied creating and disseminating rumors, they are not in their offices working and

productivity will likely suffer. A loss in productivity is disastrous for an organization trying to recapture its position in the marketplace. A technique that has been utilized in the past by a downsizing company to deal with rumors is that of a "rumor board."

Employees could post rumors that they heard in writing on the board. A manager was responsible for posting the real facts next to the rumor within 24 hours (Rice & Dreilinger, 1991). This technique might be adapted for the company in this study by using the intraweb site as the posting site.

Survivors should be provided with all available information, even if it is not good news. Openness and honesty with the employees about possible future downsizings and the company's status will help restore credibility and faith between management and employees (Dunlap, 1994). Less than that will only result in more distrust and rumors. Many respondents commented about the lack of information coming from their managers concerning the layoffs and the future possibility of more layoffs. Although the managers may believe that they are doing employees a favor by not giving them worrisome information, the respondents' comments indicated that not having solid information was more stressful than hearing unfavorable news. In addition, respondents commented on the mixed messages coming from their supervisors, being encouraged by supervisors to look for other jobs, while on the other hand their supervisors expected them to participate in company continuous improvement activities.

Another important step in employee understanding is to provide information about what the new, downsized organization expects to accomplish. Hutchinson (1994) suggested that top management should convey to employees assurances of future job

security (if true) and the rationale for the downsizing. Employees may be more willing to accept the loss of colleagues if they can see how the downsizing will provide long-term benefits for themselves and others. The organization needs to provide survivors with concrete information on how the organization's downsizing will eventually lead to a more equitable situation for themselves, their peers, and others involved. Knowing the organization's intent and the benefits it expects to gain through the downsizing can help employees feel more secure about their jobs (Dunlap, 1994).

Employees must also be informed clearly of what the new expectations are for their performance. Dunlap noted that many survivors who received new responsibilities and increased workloads were anxious about what was expected of them, and that anxious feeling was reflected in the comments of the employees in this study. To a certain extent, some of these employees have entered a new organization, and they will need an orientation to their new roles and interactions with colleagues. It is also important to tell employees how they will be compensated for their new responsibilities or workload (Dunlap, 1994), information that the employees in this study did not feel had been provided.

Providing information about the layoff process itself can alleviate the sense of injustice. Employees should be told the selection criteria or decision-making rule in determining who will be laid off, and when the decision is made, ample advance notification to the layoff victims must be given. The extent of services provided to the laid off employees in finding new jobs also impacts the survivors' feelings about the company. Failure to do any of these will result in the survivors identifying more with the layoff

victims and distancing themselves from the company, as documented in Brockner's 1990 study. Brockner also indicated that the survivors must perceive that the layoffs are not due to managerial greed or incompetence, a view that a number of the employees in the current study seem to share. Survivors need to perceive that management has carefully considered all other alternatives to layoffs, such as attrition, pay and hour reductions, transfers, and early retirements (Hutchison, 1994). Although the company in this study may have done all these things, it was not apparent from the survivors' comments that they were aware of that.

Increase Employee Personal Control. When the comments written by the Low JIS Score Group were compared to those of the High JIS Score Group, a striking difference in outlook was seen. The Low JIS Score Group comments were more inner-directed, focusing on their feelings that they had talents and the ability to make a living outside of the company. In contrast, the High JIS Score Group's comments were more outwardly directed and tended to reflect a belief that their personal fortunes were inextricably tied to those of the company. This feeling by the High JIS Score Group was indicative of their sense of powerlessness, of not being able to control their own destinies. Interventions that can help more insecure individuals gain a sense of personal control need to be implemented by the company surveyed in this study. Some of these interventions could include downsizing only through attrition, offering both retraining and alternative placement, and promoting staff involvement in job development. Doherty and Horsted (1995) found that there was a significant association between increased confidence in the organization's future and the provision of career management strategies. In an

increasingly insecure environment, employees want to focus their training and development on saleable skills as opposed to a career with the organization. For the individual, this means personal career ownership rather than expecting a career with a single company for the whole of working life. For the organization, it offers a chance to achieve more flexible and painless change, and the opportunity to form a new psychological "contract", in which employees do not have the expectation of lifetime employment. A career development program focused on employability rather than employment could help to reduce job insecurity among employees in the company in this study.

From an organization's perspective, natural attrition provides the least cost-savings, and layoffs without outplacement assistance provides the most cost-savings. However, survivors perceive forced layoffs without outplacement assistance as a sign that the organization does not care about its employees. Induced reassignment or resignation is voluntary and within the employees' control, while involuntary layoff is within the organization's control. Programs for laid off victims such as resume preparation, workshops, interview coaching, job search workshops, career counseling services, direct placement/relocation assistance, office space, telephones, and secretarial help all can increase the survivors' sense that they will not be abandoned should they be laid off, too (Hutchinson, 1994).

Clearly, not all employees can have a voice in the decision-making in a downsizing; however, employee involvement in discussions about the status of the organization and alternatives to layoffs will give employees a sense of some control over events that affect

their lives in a very significant way. It is also important to allow opportunity for the airing of grievances, and to acknowledge that management decisions are impacting the lives and livelihood of the employees (Raber, 1994).

Personal Attention for the Survivors. Survivors of a downsizing require personal attention from their managers in order to keep a sense of inclusion in the company. Employees' individual values need to be recognized specifically by their managers, and they need to be told that they are valued by the manager and the company. Managers should discuss their vision of the future of the company, the employee's place in it, and the ways in which the employees can expect to benefit. This kind of recognition helps survivors regain feelings of self-worth and security and helps them understand why they were chosen to remain while others were let go. Managers should try to spend unstructured time with their employees, either in groups or individually, to talk about how they feel instead of work issues. Attention to the survivors' feelings will increase their perception of caring, if not by the company, at least by the manager, which in turn will increase their feelings of loyalty and willingness to be productive for that manager. In that social support was shown in this study to reduce feelings of job insecurity, efforts by management to provide that social support, through personal support, or by encouraging peer to peer support, would help alleviate job insecurity among these employees.

Organizational change is neither simple nor easy. It is especially difficult when the change involves a significantly painful restructuring, such as is experienced when an organization lays off employees. The survivors' need for security, desire for justice, and desire for a fulfilling job all affect whether or not they are willing and able to maintain or

increase their level of effort when downsizing occurs. It is essential for the company in this study to take the steps necessary to address these issues if it is to rebuild itself and recapture its niche.

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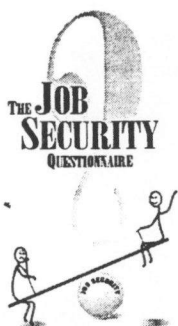
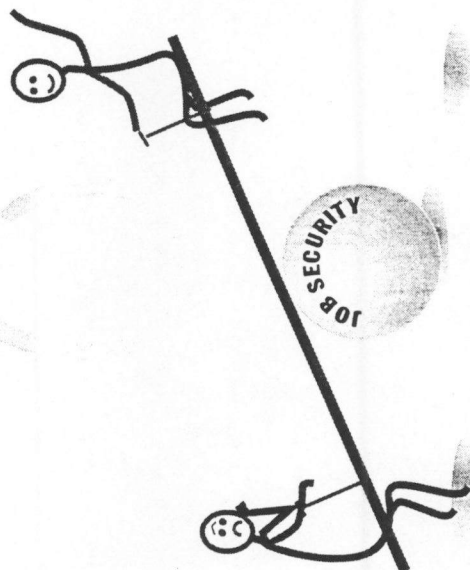
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APPENDICES

Appendix A

THE JOB SECURITY QUESTIONNAIRE



A.M. Lindsey
P.O. Box 6922
Oak Ridge, TN 37830

Dear Colleague:

As part of my graduate degree work in Human Resource Development, I am studying survivor syndrome: the feelings and emotions of employees who remain after a downsizing. The subject of my study is feelings of job insecurity among our company's employees. I have two goals: 1) to ascertain the presence of feelings of job insecurity, and 2) to identify any patterns or trends which could be used to develop programs and strategies for helping our employees deal with the aftermaths of downsizing.

Your name was selected in a random sample for participation in this study. *Your participation is voluntary and all responses will be kept confidential.* The responses you give to the survey questions cannot be linked back to you. The responses of all participants will be analyzed and reported in my thesis, but you will never be identified. No information about the persons selected and invited to participate in the survey will be made available to anyone inside or outside of our company. This survey is *not* sponsored by our company; however, senior management has given permission to send it out to our employees. A report on my study's findings will be made available to all interested employees.

Please complete the questionnaire and return it to me at my office at the Mitchell Road facility, by November 30, 1996 either using plant mail or through the postal service. If you have any questions or concerns, please call me at 6-2267, or e-mail me at lindseya, or if you do not wish to participate in the study, simply return the blank questionnaire. Thank you for your participation.

Sincerely,

A.M. Lindsey

? What am I supposed to do with this questionnaire after I'm finished filling it out?

Close the questionnaire, staple it, and drop it in plant mail or regular mail.

Remember, your participation is voluntary and all results are confidential.

The JOB SECURITY? Questionnaire .

? Check or fill out those items which describe you and your current situation. (Please check only one per category.)

1. Sex: ☐ Male ☐ Female
2. Age:
3. Years of employment with the company:
4. Are you:
 - ☐ Exempt (not paid overtime)
 - ☐ Non-exempt (paid overtime)
5. Highest education:
 - ☐ High School Diploma
 - ☐ Associate's Degree/Technical Certification
 - ☐ Bachelor's Degree
 - ☐ Graduate Degree
6. Of the total income
 - ☐ 0-25% of the total
 - ☐ 26-50% of the total
 - ☐ 51-75% of the total
 - ☐ 76-100% of the total
7. As a result of the downsizings since October, 1994:
 - ☐ My job did not change.
 - ☐ I kept the same position, but I received additional responsibilities.
 - ☐ I received a new position.
8. As a result of the downsizings since October, 1994:
 - ☐ I did not relocate to another geographic location
 - ☐ I did relocate to another geographic location
9. During the downsizings since October, 1994:
 - ☐ Within the company, I had a person (or persons) with whom I could share my feelings.
 - ☐ I had no one within the company with whom I could share my feelings, or I chose not to discuss my feelings with others.

2 In your work life, how important to you is each of the following features?

	Very Unimportant	Unimportant	Neither Important nor Unimportant	Important	Very Important
1. Geographic location?	1	2	3	4	5
2. Having promotional opportunities?	1	2	3	4	5
3. Maintaining your current pay?	1	2	3	4	5
4. Maintaining opportunities to receive periodic pay increases?	1	2	3	4	5
5. The status that comes with your position in the organization?	1	2	3	4	5
6. The freedom to schedule your own work?	1	2	3	4	5
7. The freedom to perform your work in the manner you see fit?	1	2	3	4	5
8. Access to resources (people, materials, information) in the organization?	1	2	3	4	5
9. A sense of community in working with good co-workers?	1	2	3	4	5
10. The feedback you receive from your supervisor about your performance?	1	2	3	4	5
11. The quality of the supervision you receive?	1	2	3	4	5
12. The physical demands your job places on you?	1	2	3	4	5
13. The opportunity to interact with the public?	1	2	3	4	5
14. A job where you do a variety of tasks?	1	2	3	4	5
15. A job where you do an entire piece of work from start to finish?	1	2	3	4	5
16. The significance of your job?	1	2	3	4	5
17. A job in which you can tell how well you are doing your job as you do it?	1	2	3	4	5

3 Looking to the future, what is the probability that changes could occur—changes you don't want or might disagree with—that would negatively affect each of these features?

	Very Unlikely	Probably Unlikely	Neither Unlikely nor Likely	Somewhat Likely	Very Likely
1. Your geographic location?	1	2	3	4	5
2. Your potential to get ahead in the organization?	1	2	3	4	5
3. Your potential to maintain your current pay?	1	2	3	4	5
4. Your potential to attain pay increases?	1	2	3	4	5
5. The status that comes with your position in the organization?	1	2	3	4	5
6. Your current freedom to schedule your own work?	1	2	3	4	5
7. Your current freedom to perform your work in the manner you see fit?	1	2	3	4	5
8. Your current access to resources (people, materials, information) in the organization?	1	2	3	4	5
9. Your current sense of community in working with good co-workers?	1	2	3	4	5
10. The feedback you currently receive from your supervisor about your performance?	1	2	3	4	5
11. The supervision you receive?	1	2	3	4	5
12. The physical demands your job places on you?	1	2	3	4	5
13. The opportunity to interact with the public?	1	2	3	4	5
14. The variety of tasks you perform?	1	2	3	4	5
15. The opportunity to do an entire piece of work from start to finish?	1	2	3	4	5
16. The significance of your job?	1	2	3	4	5
17. The extent to which you can tell how well you are doing your job as you do it?	1	2	3	4	5

? Assume for a moment that each of the following events could happen to you, how important to you is the possibility that:

	Very Unimportant	Unimportant	Neither Important nor Unimportant	Important	Very Important
1. You may lose your current job and be moved to a lower level within the organization?	1	2	3	4	5
2. You may lose your current job and be moved to another job at the same level within the organization?	1	2	3	4	5
3. The number of work hours the company can offer you to work may fluctuate from day to day?	1	2	3	4	5
4. You may be moved to a different job at a higher position in your current location?	1	2	3	4	5
5. You may be moved to a different job at a higher position in another geographic location?	1	2	3	4	5
6. You may be laid off for a short while?	1	2	3	4	5
7. You may be laid off permanently?	1	2	3	4	5
8. Your department or division's future may be uncertain?	1	2	3	4	5
9. You may be fired?	1	2	3	4	5
10. You may be pressured to accept early retirement?	1	2	3	4	5

? Again, thinking about the future, how likely is it that each of these events might actually occur to you in your current job?

	Very Unlikely	Probably Unlikely	Neither Unlikely nor Likely	Somewhat Likely	Very Likely
1. Lose your current job and be moved to a lower level within the organization?	1	2	3	4	5
2. Lose your current job and be moved to another job at the same level within the organization?	1	2	3	4	5
3. Find that the number of work hours the company can offer you to work may fluctuate from day to day?	1	2	3	4	5
4. Be moved to a different job at a higher position in your current location?	1	2	3	4	5
5. Be moved to a different job at a higher position in another geographic location?	1	2	3	4	5
6. Lose your job and be laid off for a short while?	1	2	3	4	5
7. Lose your job and be laid off permanently?	1	2	3	4	5
8. Find your department or division's future uncertain?	1	2	3	4	5
9. Lose your job by being fired?	1	2	3	4	5
10. Lose your job by being pressured to accept early retirement?	1	2	3	4	5

! Please write any comments in the space below.

? Indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. I have enough power to control events that might affect my job.	1	2	3	4	5
2. In this organization, I can prevent negative things from affecting my work situation.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I understand this organization well enough to be able to control things.	1	2	3	4	5

Survey adapted from research published by Susan J. Ashford, C. Lee, and P. Bohlen, in *Academy of Management Journal*, 1989, Vol. 32, No. 4, entitled "Content, Causes, and Consequences of Job Insecurity: A Theory-Based Measure and Substantive Test."

Appendix B

Dear Colleague:

You were recently sent a survey concerning your thoughts about your job. If you have returned this survey, thank you very much for your participation. If you have not returned it yet, I would like to encourage you to do so and return it to me, either in the envelope provided with the survey or in the company mail to my office at the Mitchell Road facility. Thank you for your participation.

Sincerely,

A.M. Lindsey
Education and Training Division

VITA

A.M. Lindsey was born in Terre Haute, Indiana. She attended Canyon High School in Canyon, Texas, where she graduated in May, 1969. She entered Tennessee Technological University in 1969 and received her Bachelor of Science in Biology in June, 1973. In September of 1995, she entered the University of Tennessee, Knoxville, and received her Master of Science in Human Resource Development in August, 1997. She is presently working in the Education and Training Division of Oak Ridge Associated Universities as a Program Manager in the Environment, Safety, and Health Group.