

A Thesis Submitted to the Graduate School of Social Sciences
of
Istanbul Bilgi University

The Relationship of Job Insecurity with Job-Related Outcomes:
Job Engagement, Organizational Commitment & Intention to
Resign

By

Hilal Gümüř

In Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirements for the Degree of Master of Arts in the
Department of Organizational Psychology

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İş Güvencesizliğinin İş ile ilgili Davranışlarla İlişkisi: Çalışmaya Tutkunluk,
Örgütsel Bağlılık ve İşten Ayrılma Niyeti

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Tezin Onaylandığı Tarih: 05/08/2016

Toplam Sayfa Sayısı: 85

Anahtar Kelimeler (Türkçe)

Anahtar Kelimeler (İngilizce)

1. İş Güvencesizliği
2. Örgütsel Bağlılık
3. İşten Ayrılma Niyeti
4. Çalışmaya Tutkunluk
5. İş Güvencesizliği Ölçeği

1. Job Insecurity
2. Organizational Commitment
3. Intention to Resign
4. Job Engagement
5. Job Insecurity Questionnaire

Acknowledgements

I would like to thank my dear thesis advisor Assist. Prof. Dr. İdil since she always supported and helped me at every stage of my thesis research. I also want to present my thanks to my family for supporting me throughout my education and my thesis research period. I am very grateful to my close friends. They always helped and supported me throughout graduate school term. They also motivated me and shared their knowledge and experience with me.

I want to thank to other academicians in my committee, Ryan Wise and Çiğdem Vatansever for their support and contributions to me. Also, I want to present my special thanks to TÜBİTAK for their financial support during my graduate education term.

ABSTRACT

This study was conducted to outline the relationship of job insecurity construct with job-related attitudes such as job engagement, organizational commitment and intention to resign. Items were generated from 135 employees who study in different firms in different sector by using online questionnaires. Explanatory factor analysis suggested a 8-item job insecurity measurement model which include two factors: fear of losing valuable job dimensions and anticipation of being laid-off. Also, other measurements consisted of only one factor. The results indicated high internal consistency for the questionnaires. The present study showed that there is statistically significant and positive relationship with job insecurity and intention to resign. Also, job insecurity was significantly and negatively related to job engagement. However, a significant relationship between job insecurity and organizational commitment could not be found. Along with these, job insecurity all together with job engagement and organizational commitment will predict intention to resign. Job insecurity and job engagement, all together will predict organizational commitment. Also, anticipation of being laid-off and fear of losing valuable job dimensions all together will predict job engagement.

ÖZ

Bu çalışma, iş güvencesizliği kavramının, çalışmaya olan tutkunluk, işten ayrılma niyeti ve örgütsel bağlılık gibi işle ilgili önemli davranışlarla olan ilişkisini belirlemek amacıyla yürütülmüştür. Çalışmaya farklı sektörlerde çalışan 135 kişi katıldı ve ölçekler kendilerine online olarak iletildi. Açıklayıcı faktör analizi, 2 faktör ve 8 maddeden oluşan bir iş güvencesizliği ölçeği önerdi. Bu faktörler; işle ilgili önem verilen özellikleri kaybetme korkusu ve işten çıkarılacağını tahmin etmedir. Ayrıca, diğer ölçekler sadece bir faktörden oluşmaktadır. Bulgular tüm ölçeklerin güvenilir olduğunu göstermiştir. Bu çalışma iş güvencesizliği ve işten ayrılma niyeti arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı ve pozitif bir ilişki olduğunu göstermiştir. Ayrıca, iş güvencesizliği ve çalışmaya olan tutkunluk arasında da anlamlı ve negatif bir ilişki olduğunu göstermiştir. Ancak, iş güvencesizliği ve örgütsel bağlılık arasında anlamlı bir ilişki bulunamamıştır. Bunlara ek olarak, iş güvencesizliği, örgütsel bağlılık ve çalışmaya olan tutkunluk beraber, işten ayrılma niyetinin öngörücülerindedir. İş güvencesizliği ve çalışmaya olan tutkunluk, beraber, örgütsel bağlılığın öngörücülerindedir. Ve son olarak, işten atılma korkusu ve işle ilgili sevilen özellikleri kaybetme korkusu, beraber, çalışmaya olan tutkunluğun öngörücülerindedir

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Section 1 – Introduction

In recent decades, some economic changes mainly as economic recession have occurred in the world. These changes resulted in “downsize and rightsize” in organizations (Mauno, Leskinen & Kinnunen 2001). There have been some consequences for these changes; because of global competition, firms decreased production costs; periods of economic recession led to organizational closure, unemployment and high level of insecurity; new technologies limited the employment alternatives of less skilled employees; the industrial restructuring from manufacturing to service production and relaxation of employment legislation because of the changed government policies made employees questioned about the stability of their entire job. Based on these, it could be said that job insecurity emerged as a substantive construct (Sverke & Hellgren, 2002).

A great deal of research investigated the lack of job security. The following chapters of this thesis will explain theoretical background of job insecurity concept, its predictors, its consequences and measurement of job insecurity.

1.1. Theoretical Background

1.1.1. Global and Multi-dimensional Views of Job Insecurity

Job insecurity has been defined from two perspectives in the literature so far. One of these perspectives is a global concept. According to the global concept, job insecurity reflects the threat to job continuity. Van Vuuren (1990) emphasizes that job insecurity is a concern about the job

stability in the future. She states that job insecurity consisted of three components (De Witte, 1999). Firstly, it is a “subjective” experience. Individuals can perceive the same situation differently. Some employees may experience job insecurity while there is no objective reason for this. Also, some employees may feel secure while there is a threat to their entire job. Secondly, job insecurity reflects “uncertainty” about the future. In other words, individuals cannot know whether they will have their same job in the future or not. Thirdly, doubts about the stability of the employment are central in her definition (De Witte, 1999). Additionally, job insecurity is explained with “continuity” concept; employees’ expectations about job continuity (Davy, Kinicki & Scheck, 1997, p.323) and perception of a potential threat to job continuity (Heaney, Israel, & House, 1994, p.1431). Like Vuuren’s definitions, all definitions of job insecurity imply that job insecurity is a subjective topic, meaning it is based on the individuals’ perceptions and evaluations of the work situation. In opposition to actual job loss, job insecurity reflects the perception a risk in the stability of one’s job. Thus, different individuals experience different levels of job insecurity feeling, even if they are exposed to the same objective threat. Also, their reaction to the feeling of job insecurity may differ (Cheng & Chan, 2008).

The second view is multidimensional view. What the employees perceive a potential loss of stability in the work environment can be both loss of the job itself and loss of some subjectively important job dimensions. Job insecurity only arises if there is an involuntary loss (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 1984). Along with it, Hartley et al., (1986, p.129-136) claims

that job insecurity reflects “the discrepancy between the level of security a person experiences and the level he or she prefers.” Based on this definition, it can be stated that job insecurity includes a fundamental and involuntary change (Sverke & Hellgren, 2002). Therefore, some researchers argue that job insecurity is not only related to what extent an employee has uncertainty about his or her job stability, but also it is related to the stability of the desirable or important job dimensions such as promotion opportunities. According to Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt (1984); “Loss of valued job features is an important but often overlooked aspect of job insecurity. The phenomenon is experienced as a type of job loss in as much as it involves losing the job as the affected employee currently knows it.” (Holm & Hovland, 1999, p.157). If job content changes or if an employee is transferred to a different department or different office branch, loss of job features occur. Furthermore, organizational change may lead to a loss of status for the employee, less autonomy, limited career opportunities or reduction of resources. Based on these, it can be said that loss of job dimensions contributes to job insecurity (Holm &Hovland, 1999).

1.1.2. Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt’s Theoretical Model of Job

Insecurity

Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt (1984) propose a theoretical model of the job insecurity process by criticizing prior studies on job insecurity for its lack of conceptual clarity. They describe job insecurity as “powerlessness to maintain desired continuity in a threatened situation.”(p.438) According to

their model, job insecurity is a multidimensional construct. It consists of four components as explained below:

a) *The severity of threat*: It means the level of perceived threat to stability of one's employment. This threat can be related to different features of a job such as flexible working hours and opportunities for promotion, or the entire job. The severity of threat to the job stability depends on the extent and importance of the job loss and the subjective possibility of the job loss. The extent of potential loss means; whether the anticipated loss is temporary or permanent, the loss resulted from layoff of firing, whether the change is related to entire job or related to some important job features. If employers perceive high level of threat to these features, they will experience greater level of job insecurity. However, this threat is less severe since organizational membership is not lost (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 1984). Additionally, the subjective possibility of the loss depends on the character and amount of threat sources. The most important source of threat is organizational decline. Employees know that when an organization is in decline, a maladaptation of organization occurs and it brings organizational shrinkage and some arrangement that affect the stability of employees' job situation. Reorganization is also a source of threat because it can contribute elimination of some job features. Technological changes in the organization would lead reduction of the demand for the employee's skills, and therefore, they produce a threat, especially in the absence of training opportunities. This threat is related to entire job loss. The final source of threat is physical danger. Some jobs are

dangerous and the threat of injury may risk the stability of a job situation. This kind of a danger is an important dimension of job insecurity (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 1984).

b) The perceived importance of each feature to an individual: It means to what extent individuals give importance to these features. These features are career progress, income, status, autonomy, resources and community. During the times of organizational changes' occurring, employees can consider that having different career opportunities is in jeopardy or personal career progress can be limited. This situation is perceived a threat to psychological contract according to employees. Also, a reduction in their income can break psychological contract because their actual income are reduced and they cannot expect future raises in their income. On the other hand, some employees can put emphasis on some tangible dimensions of their jobs. From the point of their views, an organizational change can lead to a loss of status for the employees, a reduction in autonomy and resources. Moreover, while the work groups are broken, they are able to afraid of losing the community which they are used to be a part of it. (Asford et al., 1989)

c) The perceived threat of the occurrence of various events that would negatively affect an employees' entire job: Being fired or laid-off for a short time would be examples. In other words, if employee know that their organizations is in decline, there is a reorganization, there are some technological changes and physical danger in their firms, thus; their

thoughts about the continuity of their job will be affected by this source of threat.

d) Powerlessness: It means an individual's skill to cope with the threats mentioned in the three components (Asford et al., 1989). The sense of powerlessness is an important dimension of job insecurity since it exacerbates the severity of the threat. Therefore, people who have the power to cope with threats (low in powerlessness) won't experience high level of job insecurity when they perceive a threat to their entire jobs or job features. Powerlessness has four factors. The first factor is lack of protection. Employment contracts, unions and seniority systems are protection forms. These forms are generated to boost the employees' power to counteract threats. The second one is unclear expectations related to job performance. For instance, an employee can perceive a risk in stability but may not know to what extent he/she should perform to sustain status in a job. Actually, inadequate performance appraisal system often causes these unclear expectations. The sense of powerlessness occurs since the employee does not know what actions to take in order to resist threats to continuity. Thirdly, the culture of the organization is also related to the sense of powerlessness. For example, an authoritarian culture could provide little comfort. The feeling of powerlessness would arise if (i) the firm has no strong and fair norms, (ii) the worker has no right for attending decision making process and (iii) supervisors are seen as arbitrary in their performance appraisals and even capricious in their decision affecting employees, (iiii) the employees' thoughts on related procedures that an

organization has for dismissing employees. The fourth factor is workers' thoughts related to procedures for fired workers. Because, they know that in the case of work force reduction, organizations usually choose layoff as a standard instead of considering some alternatives such as attrition, early retirement and work sharing (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 1984).

1.1.3. Qualitative and Quantitative Job Insecurity

Some researchers like De Witte, Hellgren, Sverke et al., (2010) made a distinction between qualitative and quantitative job insecurity. Quantitative job insecurity is similar to global definition of job insecurity. It includes worries about losing the job itself. Moreover, qualitative job insecurity includes perceptions of possible loss of quality in the employment relations such as lack of career opportunities, deterioration of working conditions, loss of status, less opportunities for rewards and promotion, and worries related to person-organization fit in the future (De Witte et al., 2010).

1.1.4. Affective and Cognitive Job Insecurity

Some investigators like Borg and Elizur (1992) state that job insecurity has two aspects. These are cognitive and affective job insecurity. Cognitive job insecurity reflects perceived probability of entire job loss. Affective job insecurity reflects emotions such as fear and worry related to entire job loss.

1.1.5. Job Insecurity as a Stressor

Aside from these four perspectives, job insecurity is conceptualized as a job stressor. It could lead negative impacts on psychological and physical health (Quick & Tetrick, 2003). Additionally, it brings about negative job-related reactions. At that point, job adaptation theory should be emphasized. From the perspective of this theory, employees try to deal with job insecurity through different job adaptation responses. For example, they would be less satisfied with their jobs; they would be less committed to their firm and have an intention to leave the firm (Davy et al., 1997). There appears to be agreement on this topic in the literature. Many research demonstrate that anticipating the sudden loss of job is stressful, traumatic and life disrupting (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 2010) and a long-term, ominous job insecurity have detrimental effects in the individual's overall life including economic conditions or other highly valued aspects of life (Severke & Hellgren, 2002). Along with these, some studies show that perceived threats related to the nature and continued existence of a job may lead to severe consequences such as turnover, lower job performance and lower commitment (Dekker & Schaufeli, 1995). On the other hand, in psychology, stress model could also explain job insecurity and its effects, such as Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) model of dealing with stressful events (De Witte et al., 2015). These researchers claim that an individual primarily perceives a threat to his entire job or some valuable job dimensions; and therefore, job insecurity feelings emerge. If the individual evaluates this threat as important and if he can think it can bring detrimental

consequences, then this individual will probably have greater levels of job insecurity. Secondly, the individual consider whether he can cope with this threat or not. If the individual do not evaluate himself as sufficient to manage this threat, strains will occur (De Witte et al., 2015).

1.2. Psychological Contract Theory

In the literature, job insecurity is also studied in terms of its relation to psychological contract. Organizations usually use written contracts. However, some contracts are psychological and these contracts can be understood by only employee and employer (Ellis, 2007). A psychological contract primarily reflects to the unwritten set of expectations of the employment relationship as distinct from the formal employment contract. It concerns mutual expectations of inputs and outcomes. The psychological contract develops based on communication between the employee and employer. Employees consider that the psychological contract guarantees job security, fairness, benefits, promotion and a sense of self-worth for doing a job well. Furthermore, the aim of this contract is to minimize of job insecurity (Keim, Landis, Pierce, & Earnest, 2014).

Psychological contract brings a sense of control or predictability. Any threat to an employee's sense of control on the work environment may contribute to the negative results such as job-related stressors, strains and detrimental health outcomes (Karasek, 1979). Perceived threat to this control could make employees feel unsecure on the job (Ashord, et al., 1989). Addition to these, if an employee considers that he has less control

over his job future, psychological contract breaches and he feels less secure on the job. Psychological contract breach means perceptions of a failure to meet promised obligations (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994). Considering these, several studies demonstrated some antecedents which threaten employee's sense of control and breach the psychological contract; therefore serving antecedents of job insecurity (Keim et al, 2014).

1.3. Predictors of Job Insecurity

In the literature, there are many well-documented studies which demonstrate “predictors” of job insecurity. Sverke and Hellgren (2002) propose an integrated model. In this model, they categorized potential antecedents of job insecurity as either subjective or objective. Subjective predictors are locus of control, role ambiguity, role conflict, organizational communication, while objective predictors are organizational change, age, gender, education, job type, nature of the formal contract and employment status (Keim et al., 2014).

1.3.1. Subjective Predictors

1.3.1.1. Locus of Control (LOC)

The locus of control theory originated from social learning theory. According to this model, individuals are stable, and they have some beliefs about the control about their failures or successes. More generally, they have some opinions about what affects their entire life. Individuals who have an “internal LOC” consider that events which have an influence on them are determined primarily by their own behaviors. Furthermore,

according to individuals who have “external LOC”, events in their lives are determined primarily by chance or the factors in the environment (Larose & Ponton, 2000). Addition to these, LOC is a personal factor and it relates to the powerlessness dimension of job insecurity construct. People with an internal LOC have a tendency to be less affected by environmental events. They have the more power to handle with risks in the work setting (Rotter, 1960). Based on these, it can be said that employees who are high internals are less likely to perceive psychological breach (Raja, Johns & Ntalianis, 2004).

In the literature, some researches on experiencing major environmental stressors demonstrated that there is an association between the internal or external location of control and the feeling of stress and helplessness. In these situations, individuals who manifest external locus of control are more affected negatively than in those who manifest internal locus of control (Larose & Ponton, 2000). Not surprisingly, several studies showed that there is a statistically significant relationship between LOC and perceived job insecurity (Keim et al 2014).

Ashford and his colleagues (1989) reported that external LOC is associated with increased job insecurity. In their meta-analytic review conducted by using 157 studies, Keim et al., (2014) indicated that an internal LOC is directly and negatively related to job insecurity.

1.3.1.2. Role Ambiguity and Role Conflict

Role ambiguity includes multiple constructs. These specific constructs are; a) the degree to which the employee's job goals and duties are defined, b) the degree to which the employees find out the processes essential to be successful. In addition to these, in order for workers to perform adequately, they have to know what their rights, duties and responsibilities are and how consequences of their performance affects to their own, others, and organization (Sawyer, 1992). Some investigators such as Rizzo, House and Lirtzman (1970) identified role ambiguity as "the predictability of the outcome or responses to one's behavior" (p.155) or "the existence of clarity of behavioral requirements which would serve to guide behavior" (p. 156). On the other hand, if an employee demands various sources, he/she will has a conflict about his/her role, resulting in high level of anxiety (Keim, et al., 2014).

Individuals who have greater levels of role ambiguity and role conflict are not certain about what their works are and how to do their works, which means that they cannot know how to meet the expectations of their psychological contract. Considering these, it can be hold that role ambiguity and role conflict weaken employee's sense of control and thus lead to perceived lack of job security (Keim et al, 2014). Evidence comes from a study done by Ashford and his colleagues. In an investigation used employees from a variety of organizations, they reported that role ambiguity is associated with increased job insecurity (Ashford et al., 1989). Along with these, Hellgren and Sverke (2001) demonstrated that there is a

statistically significant relationship between role conflict and role ambiguity with job insecurity. Iverson (1996) and Probst (2003) also provided support for this argument in their studies (Keim et al., 2014).

1.3.1.3. Organizational Communication

Organizational communication process underlies organizational operations and is crucially important for overall effectiveness. There are three important dimensions of organizational communication process: macro or global level of organizational communications; communications among peers within the workgroup; communication from the supervisor/manager (Synder & Morris, 1984). Moreover, previous studies reported that an employee's first supervisor is the most important information source and the quality of this communication is very important. Actually, effective organizational communication has meaningful consequences for overall organizational performance and poor communication can bring negative outcomes in the organization (Synder & Morris, 1984). Based on these, it can be said that organizational communication is vital for organizational functioning.

Perception of poor organizational communication leads to high levels of job insecurity (Mauno & Kinnunen, 2002). Burke (1998), showed that young employees observing "informal rumors, changes in technologies" experience extreme level of job insecurity because a lack of qualified communication in their firm. In addition to these, some investigators such as Kinnunen and Natti (1994) reported that if an employee accesses

information about his organization, which reflects the quality of organizational communication, he/she will experience lower level of job insecurity. Considering these, it could be hold that unqualified organizational communication makes an employee unsure about his/her responsibilities or duties and therefore, psychological contract could be weakened. In other words, high quality communication ensures control, predictability, more security and thus, it strengthens psychological contract (Anderson & Schalk, 1998).

1.3.2. Objective Predictors

There are some more objective variables which contribute to the lack of job insecurity feeling. These include organizational change, type of employment contract, demographic variables such as age, gender and education level of employees (Keim et al., 2014).

1.3.2.1. Organizational Change/Downsizing/Reorganization

Economic recessions, industrial restructuring, global competition and technological change contribute to changes in the organizations. In order for organizations to reduce labor costs and to remain competitive, organizations continuously change. These changes include organizational restructuring, layoffs, mergers and acquisitions, organizational downsizing and rightsizing (Sverke & Hellgren, 2002). These changes affect a million of workers each year in the world (Probst & Lawler, 2006). Especially, these economic reforms have an influence on the employment security. In

other words, experiencing organizational changes may make employees feel that their psychological contract is breached. This contract is important because it indicates that organizations will provide secure employment in return for their employees' loyalty and hard-working. Also, these changes reflect uncertainty and during these times, there is a lack of control and predictability. Therefore, employees feel insecure about their jobs (Probst & Lawler, 2006). Moreover, if an employee anticipates that there will be changes in organizations, he/she will be more likely to perceive job insecurity (Ito & Brotheridge, 2007). Ashford (1989) and Brockner (1992) demonstrated that there is an association between the expectation of organizational change such as downsizing and increased sense of job insecurity as well.

1.3.2.2. Age

In the literature, there are conflicting results related to the relationship between employees' age and a sense of job insecurity. In the next paragraphs, it will be explained the studies which found a statistically significant relationship between age and job insecurity and studies which could not found a significant relationship between job insecurity and age.

Two indicators of job dependence; occupational mobility and economic insecurity are related to age (Chen & Chang, 2008). Older employees experience low level of occupational mobility and thus, have more job dependence and are affected more negatively by a sense of job insecurity than younger employees. Moreover, it is a well-known fact that

older employees usually have more responsibilities related to his family than younger employees. Due to this family obligations or responsibilities, older employees are more affected by economic insecurity and therefore, they will be more likely to express higher level of job insecurity compared with younger employees (Chen & Chang, 2008). In addition, as Bockerman's study (2004) suggested that perception of a job as insecure increases with age, because for older workers job displacement mean enormous wage loss. Also, it means that it is not easy enough to find a new job due to the occupation-specific skills that older employees have. Thus, older workers express higher level of fear of job loss, job insecurity and its harmful effects (Bockerman, 2004).

Bocchino and his colleagues (2003) reported that older employees have a stronger tendency to perceive violence of psychological contract than younger employees. An explanation for this can be the fact that younger employees have different expectations than younger ones in general. Also, it is possible that skill sets of older workers cannot be sufficient enough to meet the technological requirements of contemporary work. When the organization wants the older employees update their skills or does not promote them, older workers will express that the term of psychological contract is breached (Bocchino et al., 2003). Moreover, Janssens and his colleagues (2003) demonstrated that compared to younger workers, older ones have a greater tendency to strongly attach to the psychological contract with higher expectations from employer. Therefore, older workers will perceive job insecurity more than younger employees.

On the other hand, some of the previous studies demonstrated that younger employees are affected more negatively than their older counterparts (Chen & Chang, 2008). Also, Roskies and his colleagues (1990) reported that younger workers express higher level of job insecurity than older workers. Moreover, younger employees feel less secure while they have shorter job tenure. They may believe that if there will be layoff, they will be the first to be fired. On the other hand, older employees can consider that they have little alternatives for their own on the labor market. This situation can contribute to the perceived threat of job insecurity more serious for older individuals (Kinnunen et al., 2014). Additionally, a curvilinear association between age and job insecurity has been suggested. It means that while younger and older workers perceive their jobs more secure, middle-aged workers feel less job security in their jobs (Fullerton & Wallace, 2007). Furthermore, Keim et al. (2014), in their meta-analytic study, reported that age is an antecedent of job insecurity construct.

As a contradictory result, Kinnunen and Natti's research findings (1999) suggested that there is not a statistically significant relationship between an employee's age and a sense of job insecurity.

1.3.2.3. Gender

Previous investigations have conflicting results about the relationship between gender differences and perception of job insecurity. Some studies could not establish a relationship between gender and job insecurity. Kinnunen & Natti's (1994), findings showed that there is no

gender difference in job insecurity (Kinnunen & Natti, 1994). Also, Berntson and his colleagues (2010) could not observe any relationship between gender differences and job insecurity. However, other studies reported there is a statistically significant relationship between gender and job insecurity.

Kinnunen (1999), suggested that men have higher level of job insecurity than women. This can be linked to the traditional role of men. They generally take all responsibility for the livelihood of the family, and therefore, losing a job or a threat to their entire job is serious for men (Sverke et al., 2004). However, some studies have contradictory results. Mauno and Kinnunen (2002) stated that women report higher level of job insecurity than men. Also, Emberland and Rundmo (2010), in their studies, suggested that women perceive more their job as insecure compared with men. Because, women usually have less power in the business life, they have less control on job features. Therefore, perceiving a threat to the entire job leads to stress (Keim et al., 2014). Along with these, women are more vulnerable violation of psychological contract and they can fail to satisfy to their employer (Turnley & Feldman, 2000).

1.3.2.4. Education

It is a well-known fact that higher level of education brings better opportunities for finding a new job and thus, it can be considered as a buffer against job insecurity. Additionally, these people set great expectations from their employers related to psychological contract (Kinnunen, 2014).

Evidence comes from some studies in the literature. For example, Kinnunen & Natti (1994) reported that lower level education level is associated with higher level of job insecurity. In a study conducted in a retail company, education is found to be a predictor as well. In this study, employees with a university degree reported more security than those who have lower educational degree (Hellgren & Sverke, 2003). Also, a study done in a division of a very large manufacturing organization suggested that insecurity feeling in the job decreases with education (Moore et al., 2004). On the other hand, some studies found opposite results. In a study done by gathering data from managers demonstrated that more educated employees could perceive the greatest threat compared to less educated employees (Roskies & Louis-Guerin, 1990). Kinnunen and his colleagues (2010) found that job insecurity increases with educational level as well (Kinnunen et al., 2010). Also, Janssens et al. (2003) stated that highly educated workers unattached psychological contracts and may have higher levels of employability. However, during the higher unemployment period, the rate of employability decreases. This lower employability contributes to the violation of psychological contract which brings perceived job insecurity. Unemployment rate could be regarded as a moderator of the relations between education and job insecurity. In other words, during times of low unemployment, job insecurity is negatively associated with education and during times of high unemployment, it is exactly opposite (Keim et al., 2014).

1.3.2.5. Job Type

Workers in higher status and in white - collar jobs (professionals, managers, service workers and clericals) have less job security than blue-collar workers (Fullerton & Wallace, 2007). A study gathered data from different European countries suggested that individuals employed in blue-collar or manual type jobs express more job insecurity compared to employees with higher status. This is because blue-collar employees work in industries where layoffs or firings are more frequent. Also, they are less-skilled workers and because of the technological changes, there is a decreasing need for them (Keim et al., 2014). Along with these, they have very few alternatives to find a new job in the labor market (Naswall & De Witte, 2003).

Individuals who employed in blue - collar jobs have a lower level of organizational communication than white-collar employees. However, it is known that greater level of communication strengthens psychological contract, meaning low level of job insecurity. Also, they get automatic machine feedback while white-collar employees get performance feedback from their managers. This is probably because of the nature of work. This work is dirty, dangerous, requires physical power, do not offer an opportunity for promotion. Therefore, blue-collar workers reported increased job insecurity (Ellis, 2007).

1.3.2.6. Nature of Formal Job Contract and Employment Status

Employment status is one of the important predictors of job insecurity according to many studies in the literature. However, there are some studies not supporting this notion.

The demands of skills for part time jobs are lower than full time employees. Their task duties and responsibilities are not important. They have less opportunity for training and development (Felstead & Gallie, 2004). Also, full time employment means being core personnel of the organization. During the times of downsizing or reorganizing, individuals who employed part time may consider that organization will fire them as well (Naswall & De Witte, 2003). Therefore, full time workers feel more secure than part time workers (Kinnunen, 2014). On the other hand, in a study by Sverke et al, (2004) done in four European countries (Belgium, Italy, the Netherlands and Sweden) demonstrated that there is not statistically significant relationship between job insecurity and part time or full time employment (Kinnunen, 2014).

Temporary employment contracts increased in numerous countries and it lead to the increased job insecurity. Organizations could use contingent workers as an alternative to full time workers. Contingent work includes temporary or occasional part time employment. This employment is usually contracted from outside agencies. They have not a long-term prospect. Also, they have very few protections within the firm in contrast to full time workers. Therefore, they reported higher level of job insecurity

than their full time counterparts (Sparks & Cooper, 2001). Along with these, temporary workers express less entitlement than permanent workers because organizations make more investment for permanent workers. Therefore, temporary workers have little chance for promotion and long-term employment (Isaksson et al., 2010). Although non-permanent workers know that their contract is finite and they voluntarily choose this contract, they may express less control and predictability, which means a violation to psychological contract (De Cuyper & De Witte, 2007a). Moreover, employees who are recruited for a fixed term and on-call employees experience greater level of job insecurity than part time and full time employees. It suggests that individuals who are less employed by a firm (have a part time or temporary contract) feel more job insecurity (Keim et al., 2014).

1.4. Consequences of Job Insecurity

1.4.1. Job Insecurity as a Hindrance and Challenge Stressor

Job Insecurity is defined as a source of stress, fear and anxiety. Many researchers hold that job insecurity is a hindrance stressor. A hindrance stressor is “excessive or undesirable work-related demands that interfere with an individuals’ work achievement.” (Staufenbiel & König, 2010, p.102). It has negative effect on behavioral outcomes. Individuals may behaviorally withdraw from the events or situation to emotionally deal with this stressor. Behavioral withdrawal can be decrease in job performance, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, organizational

citizenship behavior and increase in turnover intentions. However, some investigators argue that job insecurity can have positive effects on job-related behaviours in which stressors act not as a hindrance but as a challenge (Staufenbiel & König, 2010). On the other hand, Staufenbiel and König (2014) also claims a model which hold that job insecurity can be considered as both hindrance and a challenge stressor at the same time.

1.4.2. Effects of Job Insecurity on Psychological and Physical Well-being

Individuals have valuable experiences, social networks, interactions, chances for personal improvement and skill use, while they are employed in organization. These factors are psychologically important for individuals and therefore, potential loss of these factors reflect poorer well-being. Also, it is claimed that perceived job insecurity may be as harmful as the actual job loss for employees and have negative results as much as the losing of entire job (Emberland & Rundmo, 2010). Evidence comes from a study which report that before unemployment period, employees experience negative mental symptoms (Kasl et al., 1975). Another research shows that there is an association between job insecurity and negative psychological outcomes such as anxiety, depression and distress (Cooper & Melhuish, 1980). In a meta analytic study, it has been found that there is a negative association between job insecurity and psychological well-being, health (Sverke et al., 2002). Also, another meta-analysis study indicates a relationship between job insecurity and mental health (Chen & Chang, 2008). Along with these, longitudinal studies on

outcomes of job insecurity demonstrate that job insecurity harm individual's psychological and physical well-being (De Witte, 2005).

A longitudinal study reported that perceived job insecurity which continue over the period of three years caused psychological poorer health and depressive symptoms (Burgard et al., 2009). Moreover, a study done in England indicate that white-collar civil servants' chronic job insecurity which continue over two and half years, has a relationship with mental distress and depression. This study clearly shows that men have poorer health, higher levels of mental distress and depression (Ferrie et al., 2002). Along with these, a study in a retail company in Switzerland have suggested that job insecurity impaired mental well-being and this situation continued for one year (Hellgren & Sverke, 2003).

1.4.3. Effects of Job Insecurity on Major Job-Related Attitudes

1.4.3.1. Job Performance

Individuals may seek for more secure career opportunities to reduce insecurity, especially high performance employees find rational to worry about stability of their employment. Moreover, reduced job performance is one of the outcomes of perceived job insecurity. In line with this view, Ashford (1989) reported that job insecurity predicts job satisfaction, job performance and trust. In a meta-analytic review, it is reported that hindrance stressors are negatively related with job performance and this relationship is mediated by low level of motivation (LePine et al., 2005). Another meta-analysis indicate that hindrance stressors are negatively

associated with job satisfaction and positively related with absenteeism and tardiness (Podsakoff et al., 2007). Two experimental studies suggest that individuals who fear of to be laid-off have higher levels of personnel outputs than individuals who are not afraid (Probst, 2002; Probst et al., 2007). Employees may fear of losing their jobs and this fear can motivate them to do something to deal with job insecurity feeling. Employees may consider that high performers have a lower risk to be fired and they may try to increase their effort, they may try to do their best in their jobs. In a study done with participation of more than 500 employees in Israel and The Netherlands, employees reported that high levels of job performance protects them. Therefore, job insecurity could be regarded as a challenge stressor which contribute to some coping strategies such as an active problem-solving strategy and therefore resulting in positive job-related behaviors (Staufenbiel & König, 2010). Some empirical evidence is consistent with this perspective. Fischer et al. (2005) and De Cuyper et al. (2008) indicate that job insecurity have an association with longer work hours. It reduces work effort of employees and a decrease in job performance. Also, it may motivate employees to increase job performance because greater levels of performance is a buffer to protect them from being laid-off. It is stated that the relationship between job insecurity and job performance is mediated by work attitudes. However, it is an inevitable fact that the influences of job insecurity are predominantly negative. This model is supported by their study conducted in Germany. Along with these, impaired productivity and barriers to adaptation are

some of the behavioral manifestations of job insecurity (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 1984; Hellgren et al., 1999).

1.4.3.2. Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB)

Organizational citizenship behaviours (OCBs) are the extra-role behaviours of employees within an organization. These kinds of behaviours are not formally asked to perform by their leaders or supervisors, rather employees display these kinds of behaviours voluntarily. Helping their co-workers to accomplish a job task when it is not required would be examples of these kinds of behaviours (Ertürk, 2007). From the point view of social exchange theory, social behavior is the result of an exchange process. In an organizational context, if an organization treats its employees well, these employees will display extra positive behaviors like OCB. In contrast, when an organization act in a negative manner to its employees, these employees will less engage in citizenship behaviours. It could be an explanation of why job insecurity decreases OCB. Employees who perceive their jobs as secure will engage in citizenship behaviors to benefit their organization. Also, employees who express lower insecurity and think their organization provide less benefit do not reciprocate by performing better behaviors (Liang et al., 2015). Moreover, a study conducted in a state-owned power company (Liang et al., 2015) indicate a curvilinear relationship between job insecurity and OCB. It means that workers who have low to moderate levels of job insecurity engage in a very few OCB. However, workers who have moderate to high levels of job insecurity show OCB more. Also, this study provide support that this U-shaped relationship

is more observed among employees who have lower psychological capital (personal difference in experiencing of hope, optimism, efficacy and resilience) and less subordinate-supervisor (relationship that includes mutual obligations which is named guanxi) (Liang et al., 2015).

1.4.3.3. Organizational Commitment

Employees attach to their organization over time and they feel loyalty to their firm. Meyer and Meltin (2010) stated that “Organizational commitment is the identification an employee with his employer and it includes the willingness to work hard on behalf of the organization, as well as the intention to remain with the organization for an extended period of time. Also, they divided organizational commitment to three dimensions;

- a) Affective commitment: it refers emotional attachment which an individual feel to their firms
- b) Continuance commitment: it occurs when an individual need salary and benefits; therefore he has to work in his firm.
- c) Normative commitment: it occurs when an individual feel obligation toward their firm because his firm has loyalty to him.

In the literature, there are many studies which suggested that job insecurity is significantly and negatively related to organizational commitment. A research on 149 participants in the tourism sector in Serbia, clearly showed a negative correlation between job insecurity and organizational commitment (Vujicic, Lalic, Jovicic, Gacic and Cvejanov, 2015). Podsakoff and Le Pine (2007) conducted a meta-analytic review and

they showed that job insecurity is one of the hindrance stressors. Also, as other hindrance stressors, job insecurity is negatively related to organizational commitment. Ashford (1989) suggested that job insecurity is negatively related to organizational commitment. This is a medium effect. Moreover, De Witte et al., (2011) clearly indicated that job insecurity is negatively related to affective organizational commitment. This relation is moderated security expectation in the psychological contract, which means that individuals who experience job insecurity because of their security expectation in the psychological contract will be less committed to their organization. This moderation was mediated by fairness. In other words, perceptions of fairness make job insecure individuals with the expectation of job security experience lower organizational commitment. Rothman et al., (2013) suggested that affective and cognitive job insecurity is associated with lower level of organizational commitment. They claimed that experiencing of affective job insecurity and lower organizational commitment is related to having avoidance coping strategies. Employees with higher level of cognitive job insecurity will have less active coping strategies as well. De Witte et al., (2014) demonstrated that qualitative job insecurity has an association with future decreased perceived control, and in turn, it contributed a decrease in affective organizational commitment after 14 months later. Additionally, a research on 217 participants of food sector in Turkey showed that job insecurity will predict organizational commitment. This is a very large effect (Dığın and Unsar, 2010).

1.4.3.4. Intention to Resign

A turnover intention can be regarded as workers' desire to leave his/her firm. (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 1984; Hellgren et al., 1999). Job insecurity may lead to the high turnover intentions (Sverke et al., 2002). Moreover, downsizing processes, perceived threat of job loss and job insecurity resulted from losing valuable job dimensions causes turnover intentions. Cheng & Chan (2008) showed that job insecurity is positively related to turnover intentions. Ashford (1989) suggested that job insecurity is positively related to turnover intentions. He showed that job insecurity increase intention to resign and this is a medium effect. Moreover, De Witte et al., (2011) clearly indicated that job insecurity is positively related to higher turnover intentions. This relation is moderated security expectation in the psychological contract, which means that individuals who experience job insecurity because of their security expectation in the psychological contract will have turnover intentions. This moderation was mediated by fairness. In other words, perceptions of fairness make job insecure individuals with the expectation of job security have turnover intentions. Selenko et al, (2012) conducted a research in Germany, using 178 participants and they found that job insecurity is associated with high level turnover intentions both cross-sectionally and in the long term. This study clearly stated that the relationship between job insecurity and turnover intentions is partially mediated by general well-being in the short- and long term. In other words, it implies that job insecurity still has an important effect on turnover intentions, well-being can partially explain this

relationship; therefore, they might be other mediating variables. Additionally, a research on 217 participants of food sector in Turkey showed that job insecurity will predict turnover intentions (Dıgın and Unsar, 2010). Karacaoğlu (2015) conducted a study (consisted of 1073 participants) in five-star hotels in Alanya to investigate the association between job insecurity and turnover intentions. He found that job insecurity is associated with turnover intentions in Turkey. He also demonstrated that there is causal relationship between job insecurity and turnover intentions. Moreover, he showed that job insecurity will increase turnover intentions. Another meta-analysis indicate that job insecurity is a hindrance stressors and it is positively related with turnover (Podsakoff et al., 2007).

1.4.3.5. Job Engagement

Job engagement is also one of the important work-related outcomes. Job engagement can be defined as a mood which is related to working, positive, satisfactory. This mood consists of three dimensions; vigor, dedication, and absorption. Vigor dimension reflects high level of energy, willingness to make an effort and mental endurance. Individual who feels vigor themselves continue to work with patience, even though he experiences difficulties in his work. Dedication dimension means strong commitment toward working and it includes a feeling of importance, enthusiasm and inspiration. An individual who is dedicated to working considers that his job is meaningful, challenging and it is necessary to struggle. His job inspires him, so he enthusiastically works and he pride himself in his job. Also, absorption reflects completely focusing toward

work and happily working away. The individual immerse himself in working and he has difficulty to break off (Turgut, 2013). It actually reflects well-being of employees (Castanheira et al., 2016). Moreover, job insecurity may have an influence on this job-related outcome. However, the relationship between job insecurity and job engagement has not received significant attention in previous research in the literature. Thus, in the current study, we aim to investigate this relationship.

1.5. Measurement of Job Insecurity

In the literature, there are well-documented studies which demonstrate that job insecurity has important effects on individuals and organizations. Therefore, it is important to systematically examine this construct using validation procedures. However, there are few investigations that systematically examine the dimensionality of job insecurity. Actually, single-item global measures are very commonly used in the literature. O'Neill and Sevastos (2013) mention these measures focus on probability of job loss. "Do you expect to be in your current position five years from now?" an example of these kinds of questions. However, this measure can have a latent constructs thus, at least three variables necessary to find if there is a latent construct or not. Also, the reliability of single-item measures is not strong because of the measurement error.

It is stated that there are two perspectives which explains job insecurity; multidimensional and global view. These two perspectives have different operationalization of job insecurity construct. In other words,

global view use job insecurity measurement which includes single or multi-items, while multi-dimensional view measures job insecurity by using complex multi-item measures. In addition, these two perspectives are very different from each other conceptually and operationally. However, job insecurity is regarded as a subjective experience according to these two perspectives. It implies that two individuals who are exposed to the same objective predictors of job insecurity could have different levels of job insecurity. Actually, it depends on the individual's perception of the objective predictors (Keim et al., 2014).

Researchers adopting global view define job insecurity as an overall concern about the continuity of the job in the future. These researchers use scales with multiple items which determine perceived uncertainty or emotions such as fear about losing entire job. Seven-item Work Opinion Questionnaire developed by Johnson et al. (1984) and four-item Job Future Ambiguity Scale developed by Caplan et al. (1975) can be given as examples. However, these measures are criticized by many researchers. Because, they cannot display the psychometric properties of their scales and the statistical procedures in detail (Sverke & Hellgren, 2002).

According to multi-dimensional view, job insecurity can be due to job changes or job loss. 51-item Job Insecurity Scale (JIS) developed by Ashford et al. (1989) is an example of these measures and it includes five subscales which measure seven job dimensions and 10 job changes in terms of their importance, the probability of losing entire job and perceived powerlessness to deal with the threat. However, other researchers argue that

this scale is exhaustive in length and therefore, it can be hard to implement this scale in applied settings. Then, Lee and colleagues (2008) created abridged (37 items) and 25 items-versions of the JIS. However, probability scale of this measurement did not have strong validity and reliability and also, importance and powerlessness scales are not necessary according to some researchers (O'Neill & Sevastos, 2013). As an alternative to the JIS, Job Insecurity Measurement (JIM) was developed by Hellgren et al. (1999). It includes subscales which measure perceived risk in the stability of the job (quantitative job insecurity) and perceived risk in the qualities of employment relationship (qualitative job insecurity). It consists of four qualitative (“My future career opportunities in the organization are favorable”) and three quantitative (“I am worried about having to leave my job before I would like to go”) items.

Additionally, current studies conducted by Huang, Lee, Ashford & Ren (2010) suggest two-dimensional job insecurity measurement which consists of cognitive and affective job insecurity. Perceived probability of job loss is defined as cognitive job insecurity while fear of losing the entire job is defined as affective job insecurity. Huang and colleagues (2010) argue that job insecurity do not include both affective and cognitive dimensions. Also, they state that measurement of these two elements do not have consistency. Along with these, some researchers put cognitive and affective scales into a job insecurity scale, while other investigators claim that these two dimensions are related but also distinct (O'Neill & Sevastos,

2013). For example, Probst (2003) developed Job Security Index and the Job Security Satisfaction scale.

Majority of job insecurity measures are developed by using deductive approach. Specifically, items have been generated from the researcher's view or some theories. In this approach, researcher's interpretation of the construct and key dimensions of job insecurity can be regarded as approximation of worker's perception. Researchers investigate job insecurity from a unique perspective, but this cannot reflect the perception of an employee who experiences for instance the downsizing in their firm (O'Neill & Sevastos, 2013). On the other hand, there is a discrepancy between the investigator's and employee's perceptions of job insecurity. It implies that investigators miss important features of this construct or they can argue trivial features in the setting studied. Therefore, this is an important threat to the content validity of the job insecurity construct. To solve this problem, O'Neill & Sevastos (2013) propose qualitative or inductive methods. In other words, they recommend generating items from employees' own dialogues. For instance, Job Security Scale developed by Lahey (1984) is the only measurement based on the qualitative approach. He conducted semi-structured interviews with 22 employees from five firms and developed a 65-items pilot questionnaire. Then, he applied this questionnaire to 487 workers from three firms. By using principal component analysis, a 44-item Job Security Scale has been structured. This scale included five dimensions: organization's concern for the employee, job performance, organization growth and stability, job

permanence and individual commitment. However, this scale has been criticized because of a lack of parsimony. It is probably due to the fact that at that time confirmatory factor analysis techniques were less widespread. Considering these, it can be stated that there is not a psychometrically strong job insecurity measurement produced from the insecure worker's perspective. Indeed, job insecurity measurement should reflect the dimensions suggested by insecure workers, include both cognitive and affective elements and be short for easily implementing in applied setting. Eventually, O'Neill and Sevastos (2013) developed a job insecurity measurement (JIM) which aligns with these objectives. The primary phase to develop JIM was interviewing a group of Australian insecure workers. Then, they examined construct validity and 4-core dimensions were identified by using exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis. Also, they tested the criterion-validity of this measure by discovering its relationship with its outcomes such as job-related behaviors. Along with these, JIM with its 18 items was validated as an alternative scale to other multi-dimensional scales (O'Neill & Sevastos, 2013).

1.6. Aim of The Study

The current study aims to investigate job insecurity of white-collar employees in Turkey by using O'Neill and Sevastos' (2013) job insecurity measurement questionnaire (JIM). It also aims to find whether job insecurity of white-collour employees affect some major job-related outcomes such as intention to resign, organizational commitment, and job engagement.

Following hypothesis were formulated for the present study:

Hypothesis 1: Job insecurity, job engagement and organizational commitment all together will predict the intentions to resign of employees.

Hypothesis 2: Job insecurity and job engagement will predict organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 3: Job Insecurity will predict job engagement.

Section 2 - Method

2.1. Participants

Data for this study was collected from different firms operating in different sectors in Turkey. A total of 135 participants completed the online survey; 75 females, 60 males. The mean average was 28,4 years. Six participants were graduated from high school, 89 participants had a university degree, 39 participants had a master degree and three participants had a Phd degree. Moreover, 33 participants are working as a manager in their firms, while others have not any managerial role. %55.5 of participants are working in a national firm, while %45,5 are working in a multinational firm.

2.2. Measures

For all questionnaires 6-points Likert scale was used in order to avoid response set problem. In other words, there were discrete middle points in the 7-point scale and it was decided to prevent participants from choosing the middle point. Therefore, Likert scale with even points was preferred. JIM, organizational commitment, and intention to resign questionnaires had the Likert scale ranged from 1 (“I certainly disagree”) to 6 (“I certainly agree”). Also, job engagement questionnaire had the response scale ranged from 0 (“never”) to 6 (“always”) in Turkish version.

2.2.1. Job Insecurity Measurement

JIM was developed by O'Neill (2013). This four factors and 18-items questionnaire was used to measure employees' reports of their perception about job insecurity. The four factors consisted of: job loss, job changes, marginalization and organizational survival. Items were on a 7-point- Likert- type scale ranging from 1 (“*very inaccurate*”) to 7 (“*very accurate*”).

Turkish version of JIM was developed by following procedure: Firstly, JIM was translated to Turkish by five English speaking people; three of them were native English speakers. Then, these different Turkish versions of JIM were compared and Turkish version of JIM was developed by consolidating all translations. Then, this Turkish version of JIM was again translated to English by five people who had not participated to the first phase of translation. Back translations were compared with original English version of JIM. Items were revised if needed by investigating the consistencies across the items in original English, translated Turkish, and back-translated English and Turkish version was finalized. English and Turkish versions of JIM is given in the Appendix B.

2.2.2. Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ)

Allen and Meyer's (1993) developed 18-items Organizational Commitment Questionnaire. It was actually shortened from the 24-items original form consisted of affective, normative and continuance commitment subscales. This short version also includes of affective,

normative and continuance subscales and each scales consists of six items. The short version was translated into Turkish by Watsi (2000). She also tested reliability and validity of this measurement. Translated version had a reliability ($\alpha=.73$). Affective subscale had a reliability ($\alpha= .64$), normative subscale had a reliability ($\alpha=.72$) and continuance subscale had a reliability ($\alpha= .64$) as well. In the present study, six items were selected from Turkish translated version. In other words, the 6-items short version is specifically prepared for the current study, two items were selected from each subscales. The original scale was 7-point ranging from 1 (“No, I strongly disagree”) to 7(“Yes, I strongly agree”).

2.2.3. *Intention to Resign Measurement*

In this study, a two-item scale from the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire (Seashore, Lawler, Mirvis & Cammann, 1982) was used. This tool measures to what extent participants have an intention to resign from their organizations ($\alpha= .92$). Original scale range from 1 (No, I strongly disagree) to 7 (Yes, I strongly agree).

2.2.4. *Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES)*

Work Engagement Measurement developed by Schaufeli, Bakker and Sallanova (2006) was also used in the present study. It was shorten from 17-items original UWES. It consist of nine items and three factors; vigor, dedication and absorption. Also, each factor consists of three items. It had 6 point Likert ranging from 0 (*never*) to 6 (*always*) as well. Moreover, cronbach’s alpha for the total nine-items scale changed from .85 to .90

across all 10 countries. Internal consistency of the factors was greater than .70 across all 10 countries.

In the current study, Turkish version of the nine-item UWES was used. The reliability and validity of this short version was done by Turgut (2013). The short version of this measurement have a high reliability ($\alpha = .90$). She also investigated factor construct of job engagement measurement. She found that the short version of this measurement consisted of two factors; vigor-dedication and absorption. Vigor-dedication dimension has 6 items, while absorption dimension has 3 items. Vigor-dedication dimension has a high reliability ($\alpha = .91$) and absorption dimension has a high reliability ($\alpha = .73$). Therefore, findings of Turgut were not in line with Schaufeli and his colleagues' findings.

2.2.5. Demographic Questions

Participants were required to report their gender, age, education level, sector that their firms are operating, the department they work in, how many people work and whether they are manager or not.

2.3. Procedure

Before starting to conduct the current study, permission was asked from Patrick O'Neill for using Job Insecurity Measurement. After getting his approval, ethical committee approval in psychology department and ethical committee approval in institute of social sciences were received.

Participants primarily were required to read and sign a consent form. The consent form included information about the current study. After they signed the consent form, they completed the questionnaires through google drive in a private place of their choosing (www.google.com.tr/intl/tr/drive/). They did not write their names and their answers were automatically saved in the excel table in the google drive. Therefore, investigator just could see answers by not knowing whose answers they were.

2.4. Data Analysis

Firstly, an exploratory factor analysis was conducted to determine the factors of JIM, Organizational Commitment Scale and Job Engagement Scale. Principal axis factoring with direct oblimin rotation was applied in the factor analysis. Then, their internal consistency was tested. After the identification of factorial structure, correlation analysis was conducted to understand the relationship among job insecurity, organizational commitment, intention to resign, and job engagement. Finally, multiple regression was used to identify if two dimension of job insecurity will predict job engagement or not. Along with these, multiple regression was used to determine if job insecurity and job engagement, together, will predict organizational commitment and, job insecurity, job engagement, organizational commitment, all together, will predict intention to resign or not.

2.5. Effect Size

Statistical significance tells us about the difference between two groups or relationship between two groups. However, it does not give information about the magnitude or strength of the outcome in a comparable way across the various studies or within the series of hypothesis in a single study. Effect size simply reflects the strength of association between independent variable and dependent variable and also the magnitude of the difference between these two variables. One of the common types of the effect sizes is the R . It reflects strength of the association between independent variables and dependent variables. Also, it is common to use squared version of R . R^2 was used to show the percentage of variance in the dependent variable (Leech, Barrett, & Morgan, 2011, p.90-91). In the current study, findings from regression analysis and the effect sizes will be interpreted and compared according to Cohen's (1988) guide as summarized in Table 1 (Işık, 2014).

Table 1

Interpretation of the Strength of a Relationship (Effect Sizes)

Standardized Measurement of the Association		
	R	R^2
Very		
Large	$\geq .70$	$\geq .49$
Large	.50	.26
Medium	.30	.13
Small	.10	.0196

Section 3 – Results

3.1. Factor Analysis of Questionnaires

For all tools used in this research Principal Axis Factor Analysis with Direct Oblimin rotation was conducted to assess the underlying structures of the questionnaire items. JIM was not applied in Turkey, therefore, since JIM will be applied in a new sample, it was necessary to investigate factor construct of JIM. Moreover, organizational commitment questionnaire was shortened with the collection of two items from each sub-dimensions of original scale so that its factor structure is needed to be analyzed as well. Job engagement scale's factor structure was analyzed in order to see if it is consistent with Turgut's (2013) study for the short version. Therefore, all scales reliability analysis (internal consistency is thought to be principally necessary to investigate.

3.1.1 *Job Insecurity Measurement*

Principal axis factor analysis with Direct Oblimin rotation for the 18 items of the Job Insecurity Measurement (JIM) showed that 8 items did not have sufficient loadings and thus, they were excluded. Finally, two factors were forcefully requested. Table 2 displays the items and factor loadings for the rotated factors.

These two factors in the original JIM were named as “job loss” and “job changes”. First group of items reflected the fear of losing valuable job features and in the other group items implies the anticipation of being laid-

off. Therefore, six factors, which seems to index “fear of losing valuable job dimension” had strong loadings in the first factor and accounted for 43.7% of the variance. The second factor, which seemed to index “anticipation of being laid-off” had the next four items with high and negative loadings and accounted for 13.4% of the variance. The results showed that two factors of original JIM namely marginalization and survival were eliminated in the current sample.

Internal consistency of the factors and the overall scale were analyzed and the results showed that Cronbach’s Alpha for the overall scale was .84. Cronbach’s Alpha for the first factor (fear of losing valuable job dimension) was .82 and for the second factor (anticipation of being laid-off) was .73.

Consequently, the factor mean scores were computed and new variables were created in order to use them in further statistical analysis during hypothesis testing. Table 2 shows the descriptive analysis of the factors as well.

Table 2

Factor Loadings for the Rotated Factors of Job Insecurity Measurement

Item	Factor Loading		
	1	2	Communality
I am uncertain about my future with this organization.	.77		.59
I wish my job could go back to the way it used to be.	.71		.48
I will probably lose many futures of my job that I value the most.	.67		.53
The rewards of my job are likely to diminish.	.66		.46
Overall, my physical conditions are likely to deteriorate.	.51		.22
I am not sure of how long my job will last.	.46		.39
The probability of being laid-off is high.		-.89	.62
I am certain of losing my job.		-.85	.63
I am often excluded from discussions or meetings that affect me.		-.51	.37
The possibility of losing my job occupies my thoughts constantly.		-.43	.24
Cronbach's Alpha	.82	.73	
Mean	2.70	2.24	
Standard Deviation	1.12	1.03	
Eigenvalues	4.37	1.34	
% of variance	43.72	13.44	

3.1.2. Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ)

Factor analysis brought forward one global factor by including all items of OCQ which accounted for 40.24% of the variance. Table 3 displays the items and factor loadings.

All six items had strong loadings on one factor. “I feel a strong sense of ‘belonging’ to my organization” had its highest loading.

Internal consistency of the overall scale was analyzed and the results showed that Cronbach’s Alpha was .80.

Consequently, the factor mean scores were computed and new variables were created in order to use them in further statistical analysis for hypothesis testing. Table 3 shows the descriptive analysis of the factors as well.

Table 3

Factor Loadings for the Rotated Factors for Organizational Commitment Questionnaire

Item	Factor Loading	
	1	Communality
I feel a strong sense of “belonging” to my organization	.72	.43
It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I want.	.71	.47
I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.	.68	.38
I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.	.56	.35
I would feel guilty if I left my organization now	.54	.26
One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives	.53	.31
Cronbach's Alpha	.80	
Mean	3.08	
Standard Deviation	1.17	
Eigenvalues	2.41	
% of variance	40.24	

3.1.3. Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES)

Principal axis factor analysis with Direct Oblimin Rotation showed that nine items of engagement measurement were loaded under one factor. That factor accounted for 57.4% of the variance. Table 4 shows the items and factor loadings.

The factor, which seems to index engagement, had strong loadings of all nine items. “I am enthusiastic about my job” had the highest loading

in the factor. Internal consistency of the overall scale was analyzed and the results showed that Cronbach's Alpha was .91.

Consequently, the factor mean scores were computed and new variables were created in order to use them in further statistical analysis for hypothesis testing. Table 4 shows the descriptive of the factors as well.

Table 4

Factor Loadings for the Rotated Factors for Job Engagement Measurement

Item	Factor Loading	
	1	Communality
I am enthusiastic about my job.	.90	.77
At my job, I feel strong and vigorous.	.85	.82
At my work, I feel bursting with energy.	.84	.80
I am immersed in my work.	.75	.80
I get carried away when I am working.	.73	.80
My job inspires me.	.73	.66
I am proud of the work that I do.	.70	.51
I feel happy when I am working intensely	.63	.41
When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.	.62	.45
Cronbach's Alpha	.91	
Mean	3.69	
Standard Deviation	1.26	
Eigenvalues	5.16	
% of variance	57.37	

3.1.4. Intention to Resign

Since the Intention to Resign scale had only two items, factor analysis was not conducted. The mean score of the overall scale was computed. The mean was 3.11 and the standard deviation was 1.5.

3.2. Inter-correlations among the Major Variables of the Research

Model

Pearson correlation analysis was conducted to examine the inter-correlations of the variables (Table 5).

Fear of losing valuable job dimension was significantly and positively correlated with intention to resign, $r(131)=.38, p<.01$. Moreover, anticipation of being laid-off is positively related to intention to resign, $r(131)=.29, p<.01$. Overall, job insecurity is positively related to intention to resign, $r(131)=.38, p<.01$

There is a statistically significant negative correlation between fear of losing valuable dimensions of job and job engagement, $r(131)=-.29, p<.01$. Additionally, there is a strong negative association between anticipation of being laid-off and job engagement, $r(131)= -.19, p<.05$. Overall, job insecurity is strongly and negatively related to job engagement, $r(131)= -.28, p<.01$.

A statistically significant relationship between anticipation of being laid-off and organizational commitment cannot be found, $r(131)= -.03,$

$p=.731$. Also, there is no statistically significant relationship between fear of losing valuable job dimension and organizational commitment, $r(131)=-.12$, $p=.145$. Overall, job insecurity is not related to organizational commitment, $r(131)= -.10$, $p=.253$.

Table 5

Intercorrelations, Means and Standard Deviations for Job Insecurity, its Sub-Dimensions, Organizational Commitment, and Job Engagement (N=135)

Variable		Anticipation of being laid-off	Job insecurity overall	Commitment overall	Engagement overall	Intention to resign overall
Fear of losing valuable job dim.	<i>r</i>	.661	.951	-.128	-.295	.387
	<i>p</i>	.000	.000	.145	.001	.000
Anticipation of being laid-off	<i>r</i>		.862	-.030	-.192	.297
	<i>p</i>		.000	.731	.028	.001
Job insecurity overall	<i>r</i>			-.101	-.280	.387
	<i>p</i>			.253	.001	.000
Commitment overall	<i>r</i>				.411	-.384
	<i>p</i>				.000	.000
Engagement overall	<i>r</i>					-.327
	<i>p</i>					.000

3.3. Hypothesis 1: Job insecurity, job engagement and organizational commitment all together will predict the intentions to resign of employees.

Simultaneous multiple regression was conducted to investigate the best prediction of intention to resign. The combination of variables to predict intention to resign from job insecurity, job engagement and organizational commitment was statistically significant, $F(3,125)=15.42, p=.000$. The beta coefficients are presented in Table 6. Notice that job insecurity and organizational commitment predicts intention to resign. Along with these, the adjusted R^2 value was .253. This demonstrates that 25% of the variance in intention to resign was explained by the model. According to Cohen (1988), this is a medium effect.

Table 6

Simultaneous Multiple Regression Analysis Summary for Job Insecurity, Job Engagement and Organizational Commitment (N=131) on Intentions to Resign

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Job Insecurity	.48	.12	.32	4.09	.000
Job Engagement	-.16	.10	-.14	-1.61	.109
Organizational Commitment	-.37	.11	-.28	-3.40	.001
Constant	3.64	.55			

Note. Adjusted $R^2=.253$; $F(3,125)=15.42, p=.000$

In order to see the effect of two JIM dimensions as predictors of intention to resign, an additional multiple regression analysis was conducted. The combination of variables to predict intention to resign from fear of losing valuable job dimensions, anticipation of being laid-off, job engagement and organizational commitment was statistically significant, $F(4,122)=10.77, p=.000$. The beta coefficients are given in Table 7. Notice that fear of losing valuable job dimensions and organizational commitment are significant predictors. Whereas anticipation of being laid-off and job engagement are not significantly predictors of intention to resign. Along with these, the adjusted R^2 value was .237. This demonstrates that 24% of the variance in intention to resign was explained by the model. According to Cohen (1988), this is a medium effect.

Table 7

Simultaneous Multiple Regression Analysis Summary for Fear of Losing Valuable Job Dimensions, Anticipation of being Laid-off, Job Engagement and Organizational Commitment (N=131) on Intentions to Resign

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>P</i>
Fear of Losing Valuable Job Dimensions	.36	.141	.271	2.55	.012
Anticipation of Being Laid-off	.121	.149	.084	.814	.417
Job Engagement	-.143	.11	-.115	-1.31	.193
Organizational Commitment	-.346	.111	-.266	-3.13	.002
Constant	3.47	.59			

Note. Adjusted $R^2=.237$; $F(4,122)=10.77, p=.000$

3.4. Hypothesis 2: Job insecurity and job engagement will predict organizational commitment.

Simultaneous multiple regression was conducted to investigate the best prediction of organizational commitment. The combination of variables to predict organizational commitment from job insecurity and job engagement was statistically significant, $F(2,126)=11.63, p=.000$. The beta coefficients are presented in Table 8. Note that job engagement significantly predicts organizational commitment, however job insecurity is not a significant predictor. Moreover, the adjusted R^2 value was .156. This indicates that 16% of the variance in organizational commitment was explained by the model. According to Cohen (1988), this is a medium effect.

Table 8

Simultaneous Multiple Regression Analysis Summary for Job Insecurity and Job Engagement (N=131) on Organizational Commitment

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Job Insecurity	-.014	.09	-.012	-.14	.885
Job Engagement	.36	.07	.39	4.66	0.00
Constant	1.67	.45			

Note. Adjusted $R^2=.156; F(2,126)=11.62, p=.000$

Again to see the effect of sub-dimensions of job insecurity together with job engagement on organizational commitment, an additional multiple

regression was conducted. The beta coefficients could be found in Table 9. The combination of variables to predict organizational commitment from fear of losing valuable job dimension, anticipation of being laid-off, and job engagement was statistically significant, $F(3,123)=8.09$, $p=.000$. Note that job engagement significantly predicts organizational commitment, however fear of losing valuable job dimensions and anticipation of being laid-off as sub-dimensions of job insecurity are not individually significant predictors which is consistent with the previous finding that overall job insecurity level is not a significant predictor. The adjusted R^2 value was .145. This indicates that 14% of the variance in organizational commitment was explained by the model. According to Cohen (1988), this is a medium effect.

Table 9

Simultaneous Multiple Regression Analysis Summary for Fear of Losing Valuable Job Dimensions, Anticipation of Being Laid-off and Job Engagement (N=131) on Organizational Commitment

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Fear of Losing Valuable Job Dimensions	-.08	.11	-.08	-.73	.467
Anticipation of Being Laid-off	.10	.12	.09	.86	.389
Job Engagement	.38	.08	.39	4.57	.000
Constant	1.67	.45			

Note. Adjusted $R^2=.145$; $F(3,123)=8.09$, $p=.000$

3.5. Hypothesis 3: Job Insecurity will predict job engagement.

As the correlation coefficients Table 5 shows job insecurity was significantly and negatively correlated with job engagement $r = -.28$, $p=.001$.

Multiple regression was conducted to investigate how fear of losing valuable job dimension and anticipation of being laid-off predict job engagement. The regression model was significant $F(2,127)= 6.16$, $p=.003$ with these two sub-dimensions of job insecurity measure. Also, the adjusted R^2 value was .074. This indicates that 7% of the variance in job engagement was explained by the job insecurity dimensions. According to Cohen (1988), this is a small effect. Along with these, fear of losing valuable job dimension was a significant predictor, $\beta= -.30$, $t= -2.68$, $p=.008$. However, anticipation of being laid-off was not a significant predictor, $\beta= .009$, $t= .08$, $p= .936$.

Section 4 – Discussion

The present study aimed to investigate job insecurity of white-collar employees in Turkey. Also, it was aimed to investigate the effects of job insecurity on some major job-related behaviors such as job engagement, organizational commitment and turnover intentions.

The current study showed that job insecurity consists of two major dimensions namely fear of losing valuable job dimensions, and anticipation of being laid-off. It is found that job insecurity is associated with intention to resign. Indeed, the results depict that the fear of losing valuable job dimensions is statistically and positively related to employees' intention to resign. Anticipation of being laid-off is related to intention to resign of employees as well. These findings are consistent with the other studies in the literature. Cheng & Chan (2008) showed that job insecurity is positively related to turnover intentions. Ashford (1989) suggested that job insecurity is positively related to turnover intentions. Moreover, De Witte et al., (2011) clearly indicated that job insecurity is positively related to higher turnover intentions. This relation is moderated security expectation in the psychological contract, which means that individuals who experience job insecurity because of their security expectation in the psychological contract will have turnover intentions. This moderation was mediated by fairness. In other words, perceptions of fairness make job insecure individuals with the expectation of job security have turnover intentions. Selenko et al, (2012) also found that job insecurity is associated with high level turnover intentions both cross-sectionally and in the long term. Additionally, Dığın

and Unsar (2010) and Karacaoğlu (2015) found that job insecurity is associated with turnover intentions in Turkey.

It was also found that job insecurity has large correlation with employees' job engagement level. Again the analysis at the sub-dimensions of JIM level demonstrated that both fear of losing valuable job dimensions, and anticipation of being laid-off are negatively correlated with job engagement.

Surprisingly, the findings indicated that fear of losing valuable job features and anticipation of being laid-off are not related to organizational commitment. In other words, the relationship between job insecurity and organizational commitment was not statistically significant. However, in the literature, there are many studies which suggest that job insecurity is significantly and negatively related to organizational commitment. Vujicic et al., (2015) clearly showed a negative correlation between job insecurity and organizational commitment. Podsakoff et al, (2007) showed that job insecurity is negatively related to organizational commitment. Ashford (1989) suggested that job insecurity is negatively related to organizational commitment. Moreover, De Witte et al., (2011) clearly indicated that job insecurity is negatively related to affective organizational commitment intention. Rothman et al., (2013) suggested that affective and cognitive job insecurity is associated with lower level of organizational commitment. They claimed that experiencing of affective job insecurity and lower organizational commitment is related to having avoidance coping strategies. Employees with higher level of cognitive job insecurity will have less active

coping strategies as well. De Witte et al., (2014) demonstrated that qualitative job insecurity has an association with future decreased perceived control, and in turn, it contributed a decrease in affective organizational commitment after 14 months later. Additionally, Dıĝın and Unsar (2010) found that job insecurity is associated with organizational commitment in Turkey.

The current study also showed that organizational commitment can be predicted from a combination of job engagement, job insecurity. Moreover, intention to resign can be predicted better from a combination of job engagement, organizational commitment, job insecurity. Also, job engagement can be predicted from a combination of fear of losing valuable job dimension and anticipation of being laid-off.

4.1. Contribution of the Study

The current study contributes to the literature by investigating JIM's reliability and validity in Turkey. According to the results, two factors of original JIM; -marginalization and survival- were excluded in the current study. Moreover, 8 items of 18 items were excluded in the present study. Along with these, the present study contributes to the literature by showing the relationship between job insecurity, organizational commitment, job engagement and intention to resign. The present study clearly showed that in order for employees have not any intention to resign and lower level job engagement, they need to feel secure in the work setting. Thus, human resources department (Hr) in organizations could have some duties in order

for employees feel secure. Considering these, it can be said that the present study has important findings for human resources professionals. Firstly, Hr professionals could make contribution to prepare clearly job definitions of every position in every department. They prepare job definitions with relevant department managers. Thanks to having clear job definitions, employees do not experience role ambiguity and role conflict; and they do not consider that their psychological contract is broken; thus, they feel secure in their jobs. Secondly, hr professionals enable that compensations and benefits are regularly provided to all employees. Thirdly, hr department can enable employees have quality organizational communication. They can share every changes related to organization and news with their employees in the intranet of the organization. If there is an organizational change/merge/decline, internal information should be clearly explained to all employees. Finally, during the times of organizational changes' occurring, employees feel job insecurity because they are afraid of losing their entire job and losing entire job means losing income or social status, according to employees. Therefore, helping employees who exit from the business voluntarily or involuntarily to find a new job can make decrease their job insecurity level. This is called outplacement in the literature and some consultancy firms provide this support. In other words, hr department can enable the organization has "outplacement" procedure.

4.2. Limitation of the Study and Further Studies

In the current study, it was not found a significant relationship between organizational commitment and job insecurity, in contrast to the

findings suggested in the literature. Also, some moderate and weak relationships were found in the present study. This may be due to the fact that current study is a correlational one; therefore, we have to be cautious on deductions related to causality. More longitudinal studies should be conducted in order to obtain causality in further studies. Also, in order to obtain more true and strong findings, meta-analytic reviews could be conducted.

Along with these, the effects of gender, age and education level can be investigated in relationships between these variables.

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İnsan Kaynakları Uygulamaları, Editör: Zeynep Aycan, Türk
Psikologlar Derneği Yayınları, No: 21, 1. Basım, Ankara.

Appendix A

ETİK KURUL DEĞERLENDİRME SONUCU/RESULT OF EVALUATION BY THE ETHICS COMMITTEE

(Bu bölüm İstanbul Bilgi Üniversitesi İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurul tarafından
doldurulacaktır /This section to be completed by the Committee on Ethics in research
on Humans)


Başvuru Sahibi / Applicant: Hilal Gümüş

Proje Başlığı / Project Title: Standardization and Validity of Job Insecurity measure
for the sample from Turkey

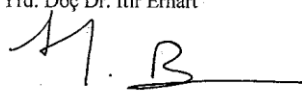
Proje No. / Project Number: 2015-20024-061

1.	Herhangi bir değişikliğe gerek yoktur / There is no need for revision	XX
2.	Ret/ Application Rejected Reddin gerekçesi / Reason for Rejection	

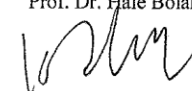
Değerlendirme Tarihi / Date of Evaluation: 10 Eylül 2015


Kurul Başkanı / Committee Chair

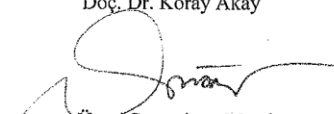
Yrd. Doç Dr. İtir Erhart


Üye / Committee Member

Prof. Dr. Hale Bolak


Üye / Committee Member

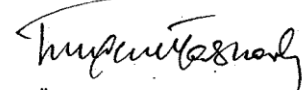
Doç. Dr. Koray Akay


Üye / Committee Member


Doç Dr. Ayhan Özgür Toy


Üye / Committee Member

Prof. Dr. Aslı Tunç


Üye / Committee Member

Prof. Dr. Turgut Tarhanlı


Üye / Committee Member

Yrd. Doç Dr. Uğur Kevenk

Appendix B: Job Insecurity Measurement

<i>English Version</i>	<i>Turkish version</i>
1. The possibility of losing my job occupies my thoughts constantly.	1. İşimi kaybetme ihtimali sürekli düşüncelerimi meşgul ediyor.
2. No matter how hard I work there is no guarantee that I am going to keep my job.	2. Ne kadar sıkı çalışırsam çalışayım, işimi devam ettireceğimin bir garantisi yok.
3. I am certain of losing my job.	3. İşimi kaybedeceğimden eminim.
4. I'm not sure of how long my job will last.	4. İşimin ne kadar devam edeceğinden emin değilim.
5. I am uncertain about my future with this organization.	5. Bu şirketteki geleceğim hakkında belirsizlik hissediyorum.
6. The probability of being laid-off is high.	6. İşten çıkarılma ihtimalim yüksek.
7. Senior management is really trying to build this organization and make it successful.	7. Üst yönetim gerçekten bu şirketi kurulumaya ve başarılı kılmaya çalışıyor.
8. Management appears to be preparing in advance and planning for the future.	8. Yönetim gelecek için şimdiden hazırlama ve planlama yapıyor gibi görünüyor.
9. This organization seems to have clear goals and a definite strategy for achieving them.	9. Bu şirket belli hedeflere ve bunları başarmak için kesin bir stratejiye sahip gibi görünüyor.
10. Overall, my physical working conditions are likely to deteriorate.	10. Genel olarak fiziksel çalışma şartlarımda kötüye gitme ihtimali var.
11. I am expecting unfavorable changes to my job.	11. İşimde hoşuma gitmeyecek değişiklikler olmasını bekliyorum.
12. I expect to have fewer resources to meet the performance requirements of my job.	12. İşimin gerektirdiği performans göstermek için daha az kaynağa sahip olacağımı tahmin ediyorum.
13. The rewards of my job are likely to diminish.	13. İşimle ilgili ödüllerin azalma ihtimali var.
14. I will probably lose many features of my job that I value the most.	14. İşimin bence çok değerli olan yönlerini muhtemelen kaybedeceğim.
15. I wish my job could go back to the way it used to be.	15. Keşke işim eskisi gibi olabilse.

16. I feel like I am being given the 'silent treatment' in this organization.	16. Bu şirkette bana karşı bilinçli şekilde "sessiz kalarak" tepki veriyorlarmış gibi hissediyorum.
17. I am often excluded from discussions or meetings that affect me.	17. Beni etkileyebilecek toplantı ve tartışmaların sık sık dışında bırakılıyorum.
18. I feel as though management is avoiding me.	18. Yönetim benden uzak duruyormuş gibi hissediyorum.

Appendix C: *The format used in the data collection with Turkish version of JIM and instruction*

Bu ölçek çalıştığınız kurum ve işinize dair düşüncelerinizle ilgili ifadelerden oluşuyor. Ölçek 1 ile 6 arasında değişmektedir. "1" rakamı bu ifade ile sunulan düşünceye "Kesinlikle katılmadığınızı"; "6" rakamı ise bu düşünceye "Kesinlikle katıldığınızı" belirtmektedir. Aradaki rakamlar ise belirtilen düşünceyle ilgili fikrinizi, bu iki uca göre derecelendirme imkanı vermektedir. Lütfen her ifadeyi okuyun. 1 ile 6 arasında düşüncenizi en iyi ifade eden rakamı işaretleyiniz.

İşimi kaybetme ihtimali sürekli düşüncelerimi meşgul ediyor.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	
Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum

Appendix D: Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES)

<i>English Version</i>	<i>Turkish Version</i>
1) I am enthusiastic about my job.	1) İşimi hevesle yaparım.
2) At my job, I feel strong and vigorous.	2) İşimde kendimi güçlü ve dinç hissedirim.
3) At my work, I feel bursting with energy.	3) İşimi yaparken enerji dolu olurum.
4) I am immersed in my work.	4) Çalışırken işime dalıp giderim.
5) I get carried away when I am working.	5) Çalışırken yaptığım işe kendimi kaptırırım.
6) My job inspires me.	6) İşim bana ilham verir.
7) I am proud of the work that I do.	7) Yaptığım işle gurur duyarım.
8) I feel happy when I am working intensely	8) Yoğun çalıştığım zamanlarda kendimi mutlu hissedirim.
9) When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.	9) Sabah uyandığımda işe gitmek için istekli olurum.

Appendix E: *The format used in the data collection with Turkish version of job engagement measurement and instruction*

Bu bölümde yer alan 9 ifade işinizde nasıl hissettiğinizle ilgilidir. Lütfen her bir ifadeyi dikkatlice okuyun ve işinizle ilgili şimdiye kadar hiç böyle hissedip hissetmediğinize karar verin. Eğer hiç böyle hissetmediyseniz önündeki boşluğa “0” yazın. Eğer böyle hissettiyseniz, ne sıklıkta böyle hissettiğinizi en iyi tanımlayan (1 ile 6 arasında) sayıyı belirleyiniz. 0=Hiçbir zaman 1=Nerdeyse hiç/Yılda birkaç ya da az 2=Nadiren/Ayda bir ya da daha az 3=Bazen/Ayda birkaç 4=Sıklıkla/Haftada bir 5=Çok sık/Haftada birkaç 6=Her gün/Her zaman

Sabah uyandığında işe gitmek için istekli olurum.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	
Hiç	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Her zaman

Appendix F: Organizational Commitment Measurement

<i>English Version</i>	<i>Turkish Version</i>
1) I feel a strong sense of “belonging” to my organization	1) Bu kuruluşa kendimi duygusal olarak bağlı hissediyorum.
2) It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I want.	2) İstesemde çalıştığım kurumdan şu anda ayrılmam benim için çok zor olacaktır.
3) I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.	3) Çalıştığım kurumdan ayrılıp birlikte çalıştığım insanları yarı yolda bırakmak istemem.
4) I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.	4) Kariyerimin kalan kısmını bu kurumda geçirmekten mutluluk duyarım.
5) I would feel guilty if I left my organization now	5) Çalıştığım kurumdan şimdi ayrılacak olursam suçluluk hissederim.
6) One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives	6) Dışarda iş imkanlarının az olmasından dolayı, çalıştığım yerden ayrılmayı düşünmüyorum.

Appendix G: *The format used in the data collection with Turkish version of organizational commitment measurement and instruction*

Bu ölçek çalıştığınız kurum ve işinize dair düşüncelerinizle ilgili ifadelerden oluşuyor. Ölçek 1 ile 6 arasında değişmektedir. "1" rakamı bu ifade ile sunulan düşünceye "Kesinlikle katılmadığınızı"; "6" rakamı ise bu düşünceye "Kesinlikle katıldığınızı" belirtmektedir. Aradaki rakamlar ise belirtilen düşünceyle ilgili fikrinizi, bu iki uca göre derecelendirme imkanı vermektedir. Lütfen her ifadeyi okuyun. 1 ile 6 arasında düşüncenizi en iyi ifade eden rakamı işaretleyiniz.

Kariyerimin kalan kısmını bu kurumda geçirmekten mutluluk duyarım.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	
Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum

Appendix H: *Intention to Resign Measurement*

English Version	Turkish Version
1) I will probably look for a new job within the next year.	1) Gelecek yıl içerisinde büyük olasılıkla yeni bir iş arayacağım.
2) I often think about quitting	2) Sık sık işimden ayrılmayı düşünüyorum.

Appendix I: *The format used in the data collection with intention to resign measurement and instruction*

Bu ölçek çalıştığınız kurum ve işinize dair düşüncelerinizle ilgili ifadelerden oluşuyor. Ölçek 1 ile 6 arasında değişmektedir. "1" rakamı bu ifade ile sunulan düşünceye "Kesinlikle katılmadığınızı"; "6" rakamı ise bu düşünceye "Kesinlikle katıldığınızı" belirtmektedir. Aradaki rakamlar ise belirtilen düşünceyle ilgili fikrinizi, bu iki uca göre derecelendirme imkanı vermektedir. Lütfen her ifadeyi okuyun. 1 ile 6 arasında düşüncenizi en iyi ifade eden rakamı işaretleyiniz.

Gelecek yıl içerisinde büyük olasılıkla yeni bir iş arayacağım.

1 2 3 4 5 6

Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum Kesinlikle Katılıyorum

Appendix J: Demographic Questions

<i>Demographic Questions</i>	
1) Cinsiyetiniz	
	Erkek
	Kadın
2) Yaşınız?	
3) Çalıştığınız kurumun sektörü?	
4) Çalıştığınız departman?	
5) Kurumunuzdaki çalışanların yaklaşık sayısı?	
6) Çalıştığınız kurum?	
	Ulusal
	Çok uluslu/Global/Uluslararası
7) Yöneticilik rolünüz var mı?	
	Evet
	Hayır
8) Eğitim düzeyiniz?	
	Lise
	Üniversite
	Yüksek Lisans
	Doktora

