

Insecure Times: Job Insecurity and Its Consequences on Organizational Commitment

Occupational Commitment as a Moderating Variable



Tilburg University
Human Resource Studies

Author: Niek Peene
Beatrixstraat 62, 4361 EG
Westkapelle

ANR: 774360
T: 0610564108
E: n.peene@uvt.nl

Supervisor: Drs. T. Winthagen
Dr. J.P. de Jong

Reviewer: Drs. B. Kroon

Project period: April 2009 – December 2009

Theme: Job insecurity and organizational-/occupational commitment

Summary

This study focuses on the consequences of perceived job insecurity, in particular the dynamics between job insecurity, affective- and continuance organizational commitment and occupational commitment. The present study sought to clarify the role of occupational commitment within the relationship between job insecurity and commitment to the employer, expecting a moderating role. To test the conceptual model, a cross-sectional survey design was used. Data were collected by questionnaires among 150 Dutch truck drivers employed in professional cargo. The method of multiple regression analyses was used to test the four hypotheses. The results indicate that employees perceiving high job insecurity show less affective organizational commitment, but that their continuance commitment is not affected. The moderating role of occupational commitment is not found, probably due to the homogeneous sample. Instead, job insecurity negatively affects commitment to the occupation. The most significant finding was the relatedness of occupational commitment and affective organizational commitment. The paper ends with theoretical implications and recommendations to practice.

Keywords: job insecurity; affective organizational commitment, continuance organizational commitment, occupational commitment

Introduction

A recent development is the (world-wide) financial crisis and economic recession which began July 2007 and which led, in any case in The Netherlands, to layoffs and shortening of working hours. Employees involved are facing uncertainty about their employment relationship. The predictability of continued employment at the organization for employees decreases, as they may not be employed at the organization as long as they would like. As a result, perceptions of job insecurity among employees, not necessarily the real threat of losing the job, may increase. Research has indicated that job insecurity reflects the national level of unemployment and the economic situation (De Weerd, De Witte, Catellani, & Milesi, 2004). In other words, a general feeling of uncertainty and insecurity is characterizing the way people feel these times. Job insecurity can be defined as 'a perceived threat of job loss and the worries related to that threat' (De Witte, 2005; Sverke, Hellgren, & Näswall, 2002). The concept is situated between employment and unemployment, because it refers to employed people who feel threatened by unemployment (De Witte, 2005). Employee's perception of job insecurity has been of increasing concern for researchers during the last decades as it may have detrimental consequences, not only for the individual but also for the organization (Ashford, Lee & Bobko, 1989; Hartley, Jacobson, Klandermans & Van Vuuren, 1991; Hellgren, Sverke & Isaksson, 1999; Näswall & De Witte, 2003).

Workers facing organizational change, restructuring or cutbacks experience uncertainty about the continuation of one's job. Different studies have revealed that job insecurity results in problems concerning commitment to the organization (e.g. Ashford, et al., 1989). However, an individual's reaction to this insecurity depends on a number of factors, including labor market characteristics, individual characteristics and employability (Sverke & Hellgren, 2002). In this study the relationship between perceived job insecurity and commitment to the organization is investigated with a focus on individual characteristics. Research has shown that committed employees perform better, show less turnover intentions and are more satisfied with their job, which is in the interest of both the employing organization and employee (e.g. Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). So, it is important to investigate whether perceived job insecurity leads to less organizational commitment as well as which factors are influencing this relationship. A promising variable is commitment towards one's occupation. According to the *theory of job adaptation* (Probst, 2000), employees who are highly involved in their job (a concept very similar to occupational commitment) could respond in a different way to feelings of job insecurity than less involved workers. More specifically, those individuals are constrained in counteracting to this stressor by lowering their commitment towards the organization, as this would put further risk on their employment relationship. This leads to the following research question:

‘What is the relationship between perceived job insecurity on the one hand and organizational commitment on the other hand and to what extent is occupational commitment moderating this relationship?’.

The scientific relevance of this study is that it investigates the effect of job insecurity on different dimensions of organizational commitment, the *affective* and *continuance* dimension (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Previously, most studies were limited to the effect of job insecurity on affective commitment, so the effect on different types of organizational commitment has not been investigated. Furthermore, little theorizing has been done to specifically predict which employees will be impacted by job insecurity to the greatest extent (Probst, 2000). The hypothesized moderating effect of occupational commitment leads to new insight in the dynamics between job insecurity and two dimensions of organizational commitment. Practically, results from this study show whether it is necessary for managers to take action to reduce job insecurity, because organizational- as well as occupational commitment are important for the performance of the workforce. Also, it will become clear whether managers need to stimulate and influence employees towards commitment to the organization or on the other hand focus on commitment towards their occupation to maintain a certain level of craftsmanship in the organization.

In the next chapter the concepts of job insecurity and organizational commitment are defined and further explained based on existent literature. Based on earlier research, hypotheses are formulated to predict the relationship between the two constructs. Furthermore, the moderating effect of occupational commitment is elaborated and a hypothesis regarding this effect is stated. Finally, the conceptual model is presented to illustrate the hypothesized relationships.

Theoretical framework

Job insecurity

The concept of 'job insecurity' refers to concerns about the potential loss of continuation of the job ('quantitative') or of important aspects of the job ('qualitative') (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 1984; Hartley, et al., 1991; Sverke & Hellgren, 2002). Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt (1984, p. 438) define it as 'the perceived *powerlessness* to maintain the desired continuity in a threatened job situation'. Sverke, Hellgren and Näswall (2002, p. 243) refer to job insecurity as 'the subjectively experienced anticipation of a fundamental and involuntary event related to job loss'. In this study, job insecurity is defined as the *perceived* threat of job loss and the worries related to that threat (see also: De Witte, 2005; Sverke, et al., 2002), as this definition is evident in the light of the current economic situation and is close to the common denominator in most definitions in this research field, which is the concern about the continuity of the current job (De Witte, 2005).

As concerns are individually and subjective in nature, job insecurity is about a *subjective* perception among employees, based on interpretations of events within their company (e.g. De Witte & Näswall, 2003; Sverke & Hellgren, 2002). According to De Witte and Näswall (2003, p. 156), the concept is about 'a feeling of insecurity among employees about their future, it is uncertain for the employees whether they will retain or lose their present job'. Perceptions of uncertainty regarding the existence of an employee's job may have as much effect as actual 'objective' job loss (Hellgren & Sverke, 2003), which is the loss of the job itself. Assuming job insecurity is seen as a stressor, this is in line with the psychological statement that the anticipation of a stressful event can have as much consequences as the actual event itself, if not more (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984 in Dekker & Schaufeli, 1995; Hellgren & Sverke, 2003) and research suggests that this indeed applies to job insecurity (De Witte, 2005). What results from this argumentation is that workers may experience varying degrees of job insecurity even if they are exposed to the same objective situation (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 1984; Sverke & Hellgren, 2002). Thus, the population that feels job-insecure may be larger than the number of employees who actually lose their job. There is even evidence of the subjective experience of job insecurity occurring in situations where there is no objective threat of unemployment (Rosenblatt & Ruvio, 1996). Next to this focus on the 'subjective' nature of job insecurity, many definitions refer to the *involuntary* nature; uncertain employees experience a discrepancy between preferred and perceived level of security offered by their employer (De Witte, 2005; Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 1984). An employee who does not really care about losing his or her job, will not perceive job insecurity, nor react to it (Näswall & De Witte, 2003).

Previous studies have linked perceptions of job insecurity to different negative outcomes (see Sverke et al., 2002 for a meta-analysis). One of them is organizational commitment. As people develop affective and attitudinal attachments to firms over time (Mowday, Steers & Porter, 1979), perceptions of job insecurity may reduce these positive feelings which in turn has consequences for organizational effectiveness (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 1984; Hartley et al., 1991; Näswall & De Witte, 2003;). This relationship is explained more elaborately in the succeeding sections.

Organizational commitment

Commitment to work has been a topic of interest for researchers for a long time. It has become apparent that commitment is a complex and multifaceted construct; it has been defined and operationalized in different ways (Meyer, Allen & Smith, 1993; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). There are different domains to which employees can be committed with regard to work. In a review of Morrow (1983) five different forms of work commitment are identified: commitment towards *work itself*, *career*, *job*, *organization* and *union*. According to theoretical research by Meyer and Herscovitch (2001), a core essence of commitment can be distinguished in that 'commitment is a stabilizing or obliging force that gives direction to behavior or binds a person to a particular course of action' (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001, p. 301). Commitment is more than a state of mind and differs from motivation or a general attitude. It can force individuals to behave in ways that are conflicting with their own self-interest, at least from an objective point of view. Furthermore, it is important to note that related studies suggest that commitment is not a 'zero-sum game'; employees can have high degrees of commitment to different foci (Becker, Randall & Riegel, 1995; Meyer & Allen, 1997).

According to Lee, Carswell and Allen (2000) employee's commitment to their employers, commonly referred to as 'organizational commitment', has been most extensively studied and many similar definitions exist. Mowday and colleagues (1979, p. 226) define it as 'the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization'. Allen and Meyer (1990, p. 14) define organizational commitment in their often cited study as 'a psychological state that binds the individual to the organization'. Mathieu and Zajac (1990, p. 171), in their review and meta-analysis, attach the definition of 'a bond or linking of the individual to the organization' to the construct. Common to those definitions is the notion that commitment binds an individual to the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

As mentioned before, organizational commitment has been operationalized in many different ways. The main question is whether this construct is unidimensional or multidimensional. From the general definitions above, there appears to be consensus that organizational commitment is about a *mind-set*, a psychological state that compels an individual towards a course of action (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). There tends to be agreement among researchers that organizational

commitment consists of multiple dimensions (e.g. Jaros, 1997; Meyer & Allen, 1991; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986), but not about what dimensions. Meyer and Allen's (1991) multiple components perspective has been widely accepted and it consists of three components mentioned earlier: *affective*-, *continuance*- and *normative* organizational commitment. One individual can experience these forms of commitment at the same time. *Affective* commitment refers to emotional attachment to an organization, characterized by acceptance of organizational values and willingness to remain with the organization (Mowday, et al., 1979). Employees with a strong affective commitment stay with their employer because they *want* to. *Continuance* commitment is about commitment as a perceived cost associated with leaving the organization. Employees with a strong continuance commitment remain with the organization because they *need* to. *Normative* commitment refers to commitment as an obligation to remain in the organization; employees remain because they *ought* to. Underlying the three approaches is that commitment is a psychological state that (a) characterizes the employee's relationship with the organization and (b) has implications for the decision to stay at the organization or not (Meyer & Allen, 1991). This distinction in three dimensions is used in this study for several reasons. The main reason is that this three-dimensional framework is widely assessed and evidence supports this distinction in three dimensions (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001).

Job insecurity and organizational commitment

Experiences of uncertainty regarding one's future employment likely have consequences for a range of work-related attitudes and behavior of employees and will therefore, in the long run, have an effect on the vitality of the organization. As Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt (1984, p. 438) describe it, 'workers react to job insecurity, and their reactions have consequences for organizational effectiveness'. These work-related attitudes include job satisfaction, organizational commitment and turnover (Ashford, et al., 1989; Davy, Kinicki, & Scheck, 1997; Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 1984). As people develop affective and attitudinal attachments to firms over time (Mowday, et al., 1979), feelings of job insecurity may threaten these. A theoretical perspective that seems relevant to explain the effects of job insecurity is the *psychological contract theory* (Rousseau, 1995; De Witte, 2005; Sverke & Hellgren, 2002). A psychological contract refers to an agreement between the organization and an employee about their beliefs regarding the terms of employment or, in other words, the perceived mutual obligations between employer and employee (Rousseau, 1995). In this respect, there is an exchange between job security which is the obligation of the employer, and loyalty which is the obligation of the employee. By perceiving insecurity about the job on the part of the employee, this contract may be perceived as violated by the organization; employees depend on the organization so they lose faith in the dependability of the organization. As a result, the

commitment of an employee towards the organization may decrease. The negative effect of the perception of job insecurity on commitment to the organization is also grounded in the stress literature, besides psychological contract literature. A reduction in organizational commitment can be seen as an attempt to psychologically withdraw from the stressor (Davy, et al., 1997). This reduction can be seen as a coping strategy induced by job insecurity.

Empirical studies towards job insecurity particularly have examined the antecedents and consequences of this stressor in the context of reorganizing or restructuring the organization (e.g. Armstrong-Stassen, 1993). In this respect, the relationship between job insecurity and employee's (affective) commitment to the organization has been studied and has overall indicated a moderate negative effect between the two variables (Ashford, et al., 1989; Davy, et al., 1997; Hellgren, et al., 1999; Rosenblatt, Talmud, & Ruvio, 1999; Sverke, et al., 2002). In the study of Meyer and Allen (1991), it was found that job insecurity has a negative relationship with *affective* and *continuance* organizational commitment. *Normative* commitment was not affected by job insecurity since employees with high levels of this form of commitment remain with the organization because they ought to do so whatever the circumstances are. Besides, it was found that affective and normative commitment to the organization are often highly correlated. For the reason that normative commitment appears to be less relevant and for reasons of simplicity, this dimension of organizational commitment is not included in the conceptual model.

Summarizing the effect of perceptions of job insecurity, it was found that employees with a high level of affective commitment feel betrayed by the organization and therefore their affective bond and their dedication to contribute to organizational goals decreases. Lowering commitment can also be seen as a strategy to cope with the perception of job insecurity. It is important to note that job insecurity literature focuses mainly on the affective dimension of commitment. Especially psychological contract theory seems to be inappropriate to explain consequences on continuance commitment. The effect on the continuance dimension was only investigated in the study of Meyer and Allen (1991), with no argumentation about the underlying mechanism explaining this relationship. Based on the theoretical foundation of stress theory, it is assumed that continuance commitment will decrease. It could be that the economic recession as a context could influence the relationship, but this factor is not integrated in this study. Employees could experience a greater perceived cost to leave the organization as alternatives for employment may be limited, so continuance commitment may increase or remain unchanged. As argued, this argumentation could not be investigated so it would be incorrect to base a hypothesis on this premise. Thus, it is expected that continuance commitment decreases as a strategy to cope with the effects of job insecurity. The rationale is that an employee whose job is perceived as threatened is likely to psychologically protect

him/herself by withdrawal from the job. The empirical result of Meyer and Allen (1991) supports this assumption. The following hypotheses can be formulated:

H1: Perceived job insecurity has a negative effect on employee's affective commitment to the organization

H2: Perceived job insecurity has a negative effect on employee's continuance commitment to the organization

It is interesting to predict on which type of organizational commitment job insecurity will have the strongest effect. Continuance commitment, as argued, develops on the basis of the employees recognition of the investments made in the organization or the lack of employment alternatives (Allen & Meyer, 1996). The latter antecedent increases as a result of the current economic situation, whereby the negative effect of perceiving job insecurity will be compensated to a certain extent. So, it is expected that the effect of job insecurity will be greater for affective commitment.

H3: The negative effect of perceived job insecurity on affective commitment will be stronger than on continuance commitment

As mentioned in the 'introduction' section, occupational commitment is hypothesized to be a moderator in the relationship between job insecurity and organizational commitment. This concept is defined and positioned first.

Occupational commitment

In the occupational commitment literature, the terms *occupation*, *profession* and *career* have been used interchangeably (Lee, et al., 2000), but in this study 'occupation' is used for reasons of clarity. Blau (1985) defined occupational commitment as 'one's attitude towards one's profession or vocation'. So, occupational commitment can be seen as commitment to a particular line of work. In this study the concept is presumed to be an underlying condition for 'craftsmanship'. This word is often associated with handwork, but according to Sennett (2008) this concept can be applied to a variety of jobs. 'Craftsmanship' can be defined as 'a durable (...) human motivation, the desire to work good because of the work itself' and it is about dedication to the job and the strive to optimize quality (Sennett, 2008). This definition points to the fact that it is not only competence that leads to being a 'craftsman' but also some form of commitment to the work itself. As argued, being committed towards one's occupation is a prerequisite for being a craftsman.

As noted in a recent meta-analysis on occupational commitment of Lee and colleagues (2000, p. 800), most research has defined occupational commitment as 'a psychological link between a person and his or her occupation that is based on an affective reaction to that occupation'. According to these authors, this emotional connection that the person feels with the occupation has implications

for different work behaviors and the intention to stay in the organization. Aranya, Pollock and Amernic (1981, p. 272) define professional commitment as 'the relative strength of identification with and involvement in the profession'. These various definitions all have a unidimensional perspective; commitment to one's occupation has typically been conceptualized as an affective attachment to the occupation (Meyer, Allen & Smith, 1993).

Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993) have found empirical evidence for a three-component model of occupational commitment (*affective*, *continuance* and *normative*) as an extension of their three-dimensional model of organizational commitment. It was revealed that the three component measures of occupational commitment were distinguishable from one another and from measures of the three components of organizational commitment (Meyer, Allen & Smith, 1993; Irving, Coleman, & Cooper, 1997). *Affective* commitment thus refers to a person's emotional attachment to the occupation and the person's desire to remain in the occupational role, whereas *continuance* commitment is an employee's assessment of the costs associated with leaving one's occupation. *Normative* commitment is a person's sense of obligation to remain in their occupation (Meyer, Allen & Smith, 1993). In a study towards the conceptualization of occupational commitment, Blau (2001, 2003) argues that the construct is still in its 'early measurement stage'. He finds support for a four-dimensional model, where the *continuance* construct is divided into two dimensions (*perceived accumulated costs* and *limited alternatives*) instead of general perceived cost of leaving one's occupation (Meyer, Allen & Smith, 1993). Accumulated costs are for example training or education an employee has received which make it more difficult to change to an other occupation. Limited alternatives is about the perception that there are no other occupational alternatives for the current job (Blau, 2003).

A multidimensional approach provides a more complete understanding of a person's tie to his or her occupation. However, in this study only 'affective occupational commitment' is measured. Affective occupational commitment is most likely to influence the relationship between job insecurity and organizational commitment as is discussed below. From now on, when occupational commitment is mentioned this actually implies *affective* occupational commitment.

Occupational commitment as moderator

A central view in the literature on job insecurity is the idea that job insecurity has the most impact on vulnerable groups of employees. Vulnerable in this case means that an employee is committed, for instance, only to his or her organization and not towards the occupation. So, when an individual is committed only to the organization and identifies with this entity, feelings of job insecurity may lead to a stronger effect on commitment as the basis for their identification is threatened. This reasoning leads to the proposition that the relationship between job insecurity and organizational commitment

will be stronger for employees having less occupational commitment. Consistent with this argumentation is the study of Probst (2000), in which the moderating effects of job involvement on the consequences of job insecurity are explored. The concept of job involvement is similar to the concept of affective occupational commitment, since it is defined as ‘the extent to which an employee identifies psychologically with his or her job’ (Probst, 2000, p. 63). The terms ‘job’ and ‘occupation’ differ to some extent but are also used interchangeably in the literature on commitment. Probst adopts Hulin’s *theory of job adaptation*, which states that individuals are motivated to do something to counteract a stressful job situation. The choice for which action to undertake is limited by individual and organizational constraints and those contingencies are different for employees highly or less invested in their occupation (Probst, 2000). Employees highly committed towards their occupation are constrained from responding in a way that would further put risk on their employment relationship. It was found that reduced organizational commitment is not a viable response to the stressor of job insecurity for an employee highly involved (or committed) in his or her occupation. Responding to job insecurity by being less committed to the organization ‘would only serve to exacerbate the original stressor’ (Probst, 2000, p. 65). Employees, who are highly committed towards their occupation, will react to job insecurity by reporting higher psychological distress and a greater number of negative health conditions, not by lowering their commitment towards their organization. This leads to the following hypothesis:

H4: For employees showing a high commitment towards their occupation, perceiving job insecurity will have a weaker negative effect on organizational commitment compared to employees less committed towards their occupation.

All hypotheses are summarized in the conceptual model (figure 1).

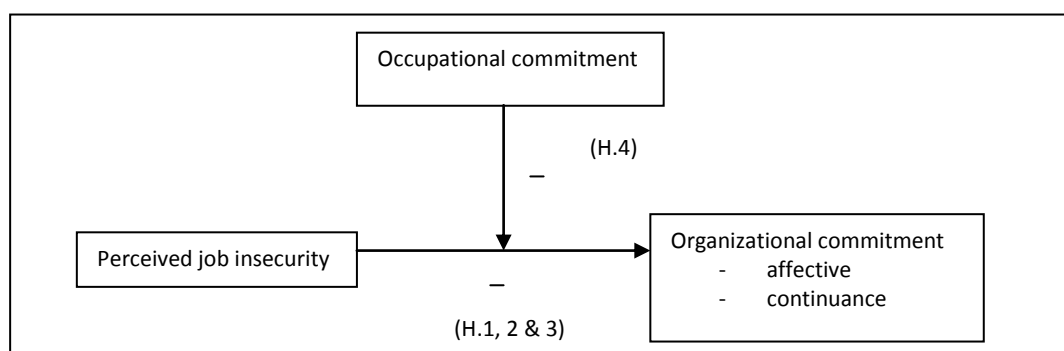


Figure 1. The conceptual model: Variables and their hypothesized effects

Method

Sample and data collection

The study was cross-sectional (all *quantitative* data was collected at one moment in time), often called a survey design. In a cross-sectional design it is only possible to examine relationships between variables, there is no time ordering between the variables as data is collected simultaneously. This implies that only *inferences* about causality can be drawn. Quantitative data collection by means of surveys is a relatively simple and straightforward way to collect data about attitudes, opinions, and behavior (Baarda, De Goede, & Kalmijn, 2007).

Data were collected among Dutch truck drivers employed in the professional transport sector in the Netherlands in June 2009, with a total of 150 respondents. The main advantage of such a homogeneous sample is that variations in occupation are minimized, the context is kept constant. Such variations could influence the relationships between the variables. The population of employees employed in the professional cargo in 2008 was about 141.100 (Donker van Heel, Kans, Van Nuland, & De Kogel, 2009). It is important to note that this sector has to deal with major consequences of the credit crisis, the main reason for focusing on this sector in this study. In a large scale study (1.763 firms) with a specific focus on the Dutch professional cargo sector it was shown that employment in January 2009 decreased with 1.2% compared to January 2008, especially in smaller firms (Donker van Heel et al., 2009). Compared to the employment increase of 23.4% between 1999 and 2009, this decrease is an evident result of the economic crisis. Second, 8% of the firms reported a personnel surplus due to a fall in work. The vacancy-level for truck-drivers declined to a historical minimum of 1,2% in 2009, while this was 4.4% in 2008. The amount of bankruptcies in the Dutch transport sector increased, with 19, 20 and 36 firms in respectively the first three months of 2009 (Velthoven, 2009). These national- and sector-level developments likely lead to an increase in feelings of job insecurity on the individual level. Previous research has indicated that employees enter into a psychological contract with their employer, which gives them a sense that they can reasonably control events in their personal worlds (Ashford et al., 1989). Economic or organizational developments that threaten such control should lead to strong reactions, particularly feelings of job insecurity.

During two visits to a transport restaurant nearby the Dutch-Belgian border, truck drivers were randomly approached to participate. A 5-page self-completion questionnaire, including measures on job insecurity, organizational commitment, occupational commitment and personal background was provided with the assurance that they would be processed anonymously and confidentially (for the questionnaire as it was used in this study: see Appendix A).

The overall response rate was 93%. After screening the data, 4 surveys were not used due to an excessive amount of missing data. The remaining 146 suitable questionnaires were organized into a database and used for further analysis. From now on, they will be referred to as 'respondents'.

All of the respondents were male ($n = 150$, 100%), comparable to the 99% reported in a previous study (Donker van Heel, et al., 2009). Their age ranged in years from 21 to 64, with a mean of 41.1 years. More specifically, 9% was younger than 25 years; 18% in the range of 25 and 34; 32% in 35 – 44; 32% in 45-54, and 10% 55 years or older. This sample is quite similar to the study reported previously, only with relatively more respondents in the range from 35 – 54 (64% in the current sample compared to 54%). 93% had a permanent contract ($n = 140$), and respondents had an average organizational tenure of 9.8 years. All of the respondents were employed as professional truck drivers in the Dutch transport sector.

Measures

Existing scales that proved to be reliable and valid were used. Unless stated otherwise, all scales reported were found to have single factor structures (Principal Component Analysis; Varimax Rotation). Responses were made on a five-point Likert scale (1= strongly disagree, 5= strongly agree). Reliability and validity of the scales used was calculated. Cronbach's alpha was used as a reliability measure of internal consistency; a value of $> .7$ is considered as sufficient, a value $< .5$ is insufficient. It was assessed whether items independently contribute to the reliability of the scale. Homogeneity of a scale was calculated through the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) criterium; a KMO of $> .7$ indicates that items are similar and that the scale is homogeneous (see Appendix B for the results of the factor analyses). A value of $.6$ was considered as the minimum value for a good factor analysis.

Control variables

In all analyses, there was controlled for gender (0 = female, 1 = male), age (years), employment relationship (0 = temporary, 1 = permanent contract) and organizational tenure (years). A control variable is important when the variable has an effect on the dependent variable and when it is correlated with the variables whose effects are the focus of the study (Allison, 1999). Age correlates positively with both types of organizational commitment (Meyer et al., 2002) and is often seen as an antecedent of job insecurity (De Witte, 2005). Similarly, Finegold, Mohrman and Spreitzer (2002) and Cheng and Chan (2008) reported that job insecurity had a more negative impact on organizational commitment among older employees compared to younger employees. So, it was necessary to include an interaction effect of age and job insecurity into the regression. Gender was not included in further analysis, as there was no variation in this variable (all respondents were male).

Independent variable

Job insecurity ($\alpha=.84$) was measured using a 5-item scale developed by De Witte (2000), one of which reads by “I feel insecure about the future of my job”. It consisted of both cognitive (e.g. “I am sure I can keep my job”) and affective (e.g. “I feel insecure about the future of my job”) items. The answer scale ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree), as mentioned earlier. The scale measures (quantitative) perceived job insecurity and it was proved to be sufficiently homogeneous; KMO was .80.

Dependent variables

Affective organizational commitment ($\alpha=.84$) was measured using 5 items developed by De Gilder, Van den Heuvel and Ellemers (1997). This scale is translated to Dutch from the OCQ questionnaire of Meyer and Allen (1991) and a sample item is “I feel emotionally attached to this organization”. One reversely coded item (“I do not feel at home in this organization”) was deleted from the scale because the correlation of scores on this item with the total score was not sufficient (.20) and it did not contribute to the reliability of the scale as a whole. Scores on this item were on average very high (4.47 out of 5) and after deleting this item, Cronbach’s alpha increased from .79 to .84. KMO value of sampling adequacy for the scale consisting of 4 items is above .6 (KMO = .74).

Continuance commitment was also measured using the translated scale of De Gilder et al. (1997). It consists of 5 items, a sample item is “I feel that I have not enough alternatives to leave my job right now”. Initial scale reliability was low ($\alpha=.58$), with scores on two items correlating low with total scores (.19 and .18). After exploring different options, deleting the reversed item “when I leave my job, I will be easy to find another job” seemed to be the best solution as it was indicated that this item was measuring something different from the scale as a whole (.18), reliability increased ($\alpha=.60$) and factor analysis showed the variable consisted of 1 component (KMO was .64), each of the 4 items left loading high on one component.

Moderating variable

(Affective) Occupational commitment ($\alpha=.72$) was measured using a 5-item scale. Similar to Meyer and colleagues’ (1993) extension of the organizational commitment scale, the word ‘organization’ was changed into ‘occupation’ (in this study the Dutch word ‘chauffeursvak’) in the translated scale of De Gilder, Van den Heuvel and Ellemers (1997). In several studies it was proved that Meyer and Allen’s initial model of organizational commitment could be extended to occupational commitment by substituting the word ‘organization’ by ‘occupation’ in the questionnaire. It was shown that the conceptualization of occupational commitment was significantly different from the constructs

belonging to organizational commitment (e.g. Irving, et al., 1997; Meyer et al., 1993). The KMO value of the scale was .74 which can be seen as sufficiently homogeneous.

Another factor analysis was conducted with all items of the four variables included, to check whether variables showed sufficient discriminant validity. Such an analysis is especially relevant regarding the two moderately correlated constructs of occupational commitment and affective organizational commitment. Results showed that the constructs were significantly different as items belonging to one construct all loaded on the same component, except for one item (see Appendix B for the results). One item being part of the variable of occupational commitment loaded high on a component of affective organizational commitment. This is an indication of the relatedness of both concepts. This item was not deleted, because of its contribution to the reliability of the occupational commitment scale as a whole and the finding this scale was factorially stable, based on the independent factor analysis of the relevant scale. Nevertheless, a reflection on the relatedness of the two concepts can be found in the discussion chapter. Information about means, standard deviations, and correlations between scales of the total sample is to be found in table 1.

Analyses

Hierarchical multiple regression analysis was separately performed on the two different dependent variables (affective- and continuance organizational commitment), in which cases were excluded pairwise. Before testing hypotheses, it was necessary to test for multicollinearity, as the constructs of organizational- and occupational commitment are quite similar (yet independent, as discussed before). When independent variables are highly correlated ($r > .9$), this could have an effect on the regression model. No correlations between scales with a value of above .9 were found, with a highest correlation of .57 between the variables tenure and age.

First, the control variables were introduced in the regression model to test for possible interactions between job insecurity and organizational commitment. In the second step, job insecurity and occupational commitment were included and in the third step the interaction term between job insecurity and occupational commitment was added to test the moderating effect. This method is known as the 'product variable approach' (Baron & Kenny, 1986). In this study it was assumed that the effect of job insecurity (X) on organizational commitment (Y) would be changed by the moderator (Z) in a linear way; this linear hypothesis represents a gradual, steady change in the effect of X on Y as the moderator changes (Baron & Kenny, 1986). When the effect of the product of job insecurity and occupational commitment on organizational commitment is significant while job insecurity and occupational commitment are controlled, occupational commitment would be seen as a moderator.

Table I. The correlation matrix: Means, standard deviations, and zero-order correlations (Pearson) of study variables

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Perceived job insecurity	1.87	.85	1							
Affective organizational commitment	3.31	1.04	-.30**	1						
Continuance organizational commitment	3.50	1.02	.17	-.03	1					
Occupational commitment	3.90	.78	-.21*	.56**	.04	1				
Gender (0 = female, 1 = male)	-	-	na	na	na	na	1			
Age	41.10	10.70	.07	-.04	.26**	-.07	na	1		
Employment relationship (0 = temporary, 1 = permanent)	-	-	.03	-.04	.08	-.05	na	.31**	1	
Tenure	9.82	8.35	-.05	.18*	.18*	.13	na	.57**	.27**	1

na = not applicable

* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$

Results

Descriptive results

The correlations (Pearson) between the study variables are shown in Table I. Perceived job insecurity correlates moderately negative with affective organizational commitment ($r = -.30, p < .001$) and weakly negative with occupational commitment ($r = -.21, p < .05$). Affective organizational commitment correlates strongly with occupational commitment ($r = .56, p < .001$) and weakly with organizational tenure ($r = .18, p < .05$). Continuance commitment has a weak positive correlation with age ($r = .26, p < .001$) and tenure ($r = .18, p < .05$). So the older employees are and the longer they are working for their current organization, the more they are committed to the organization on the base of a perceived cost to leave the organization. Not surprisingly, older employees more often have a permanent contract ($r = .31, p < .001$) and have been working longer for their current employer ($r = .57, p < .001$). Finally, employees with a longer organizational tenure are often permanently employed ($r = .27, p < .001$). A possible explanation for this result is the Dutch labor act which restricts the number of successive temporary contracts.

Results of the regression analyses

The results of the multiple regression analysis are presented in table II. The first hypothesis (H1) concerned the direct effect of job insecurity on affective commitment:

H1: Perceived job insecurity has a negative effect on employee's affective commitment to the organization

Model 1 (Table II), including the control variables age, employment relationship and tenure explains a significant proportion of 6% ($F=2.96, p < .05$) of the variance in affective commitment. In model 2, the independent variable job insecurity is added. Results show that the proportion explained variance increases to 14%, which is a significant change ($F=5.39, p < .01$). Considering the value of B, the strength and direction of the effect, it is shown that job insecurity has a significant negative relation ($B=-.34, p < .01$) with affective organizational commitment, which means that hypothesis 1 is accepted. Employees perceiving a higher degree of job insecurity have less affective commitment to their organization. The second hypothesis predicted the direct effect of job insecurity on the second type of commitment to the organization, continuance commitment:

H2: Perceived job insecurity has a negative effect on employee's continuance commitment to the organization

Table II. Results of multiple regression analysis with affective- and continuance organizational commitment as dependent variables

<i>Variables</i>	<i>Affective org. commitment (n=141)</i>					<i>Continuance org. commitment</i>				
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	ΔR^2	R^2	<i>F</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	ΔR^2	R^2	<i>F</i>
Model 1			.06*	.06*	2.96			.07*	.07*	3.31
Age (in years)	-.02	.01				.02*	.01			
Employment relationship (0 = temporary, 1 = permanent)	-.27	.38				-.03	.38			
Tenure (in years)	.04**	.01				.01	.01			
Model 2			.08**	.14***	5.39			.02	.09*	3.40
Job insecurity	-.34**	.10				.18	.10			
Model 3			.22***	.36***	14.83			.01	.10*	2.90
Occupational commitment	.65***	.10				.12	.11			
Model 4			.01	.36***	12.60			.01	.11*	2.72
Job insecurity x occupational commitment	-.11	.11				.17	.13			

B = unstandardized beta-coefficient; SE B = standard error of unstandardized beta-coefficient; ΔR^2 = change in explanation rate in each model; R^2 = explanation rate; *F* = F-value for different models.

p* < .05; *p* < .01; ****p* < .001

Model 1 consisting of only the control variables, explains a significant 7% ($F=3.31$, $p < .05$) of the variance in continuance commitment. After including job insecurity in the model 2, a proportion of 9% ($F=3.40$, $p < .05$) of the variance is explained. This increase of 2% is not significant and so job insecurity does not have a significant relation ($B=.18$) with this dependent variable. Employees perceiving a higher degree of job insecurity do not have less continuance commitment towards their organization. As a result, hypothesis 2 is rejected. Hypothesis 3 concerned the difference in strength of the effect of job insecurity on the two types of organizational commitment:

H3: The negative effect of perceived job insecurity on affective commitment will be stronger than on continuance commitment

Table II shows the B values for the effect of job insecurity on the dependent variables. For affective commitment, job insecurity has a negative effect of $-.34$. After adding the variable of job insecurity to the regression model, the proportion of the explained variance in affective commitment increases with 8% which is the unique contribution of this variable. As argued above, job insecurity does not have a significant effect on continuance commitment ($B=.18$). A remarkable result is that this effect is positive rather than negative, but is not significant. After including job insecurity in the regression model, a non-significant 2% increase in the explained variance of continuance commitment appears. Concluding, hypothesis 3 is accepted. The moderating effect of occupational commitment formed the last hypothesis:

H4: For employees showing a high commitment towards their occupation, perceiving job insecurity will have a weaker negative effect on organizational commitment compared to employees less committed towards their occupation.

This moderating effect was tested for both dependent variables. In model 4 (Table II), this interaction effect is added after including the direct effect of occupational commitment in model 3. The change in the proportion explained variance of affective organizational commitment after adding the production term is not significant; only 1% was explained more compared to the model 3. Consequently, the interaction between the two variables did not have a significant effect ($B=-.11$). For employees showing a higher commitment towards their occupation, the negative relation between perceived job insecurity and affective organizational commitment is not weakened. Evidently, the results show a strong positive relation ($B=.65$, $p < 0.001$) between occupational commitment and affective commitment. So individuals with a higher degree of occupational commitment also are more strongly committed towards their organization. For continuance commitment as dependent variable the moderating effect is also not significant ($B=.17$). Compared to model 3, only 1% is explained more of the variance in continuance commitment. Hypothesis 4 is

rejected, as for both dependent variables the interaction term does not make a significant contribution to the explained variance.

Other results

Besides the results concerning the hypothesis, there are other findings that are important to note. First of all, a remarkable finding is the relatively low perception of job insecurity. Respondents scored on average 1.87 out of 5 on perceived job insecurity. Considering the bad economic situation for especially the transport sector this result is unexpected. Second, the control variable tenure has a weak positive relationship ($B=.04$, $p < .05$) with affective organizational commitment in model 1 (see Table II). After controlling for job insecurity and occupational commitment this effect is no longer significant. Third, age was found to have a weak positive effect ($B=.02$, $p < .05$) on the continuance dimension of organizational commitment. Fourth, and more important, a regression analysis of job insecurity on occupational commitment revealed a significant negative effect of the former variable on the latter after controlling for age, tenure and employment relationship ($B=-.17$, $p < .05$). This model explains a proportion of 9% of the variance in the occupational commitment ($F=3.15$, $p < .05$). So, individuals that are feeling more insecure about their job, show less commitment towards their occupation. The last important finding was already mentioned, that is the significant direct effect of occupational commitment to affective organizational commitment. For a complete understanding, the main results are visualized in Figure II. As continuance organizational commitment was not explained by the variables included in this study, it is not included in this figure; only significant relations are visualized.

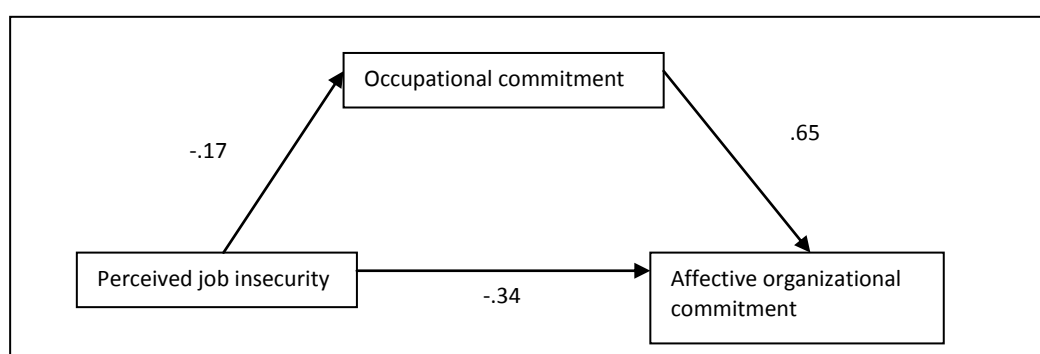


Figure II. Results of the regression analysis including the main variables

Conclusion and discussion

This chapter starts with the conclusion of this study, which is presented by answering the research question. Subsequently, in the discussion part, the results of this study are discussed and a reflection is made by putting them into a broader perspective. This part also includes the inevitable limitations of this study, recommendations for further scientific research and the relevance for both theory and practice.

Conclusion

The first aim of this study was to investigate the relationship between job insecurity and two different dimensions of organizational commitment: affective and continuance. The second purpose was to examine whether this direct effect was moderated by a form of commitment towards another entity, the occupation of an employee. The research question will be answered by means of the different hypothesis:

‘What is the relationship between perceived job insecurity on the one hand and organizational commitment on the other hand and to what extent is occupational commitment moderating this relationship?’

As expected, employees who perceived more job insecurity showed less affective commitment towards their organization than employees perceiving less job insecurity. Next to this, a significant negative relation between the perception of job insecurity and continuance organizational commitment was not found. This answers the first part of the research question. Results further indicated that the relationship between job insecurity and the two different dimensions of organizational commitment was not moderated by occupational commitment. Occupational commitment did not alter the strength of the relationship and thus could not be seen as a moderator variable. This finding provides an answer to the second part of the research question. Concluding, the hypothesized model does not accurately fit the data.

Discussion

Individuals who perceived more job insecurity showed less affective commitment towards their organization. This is consistent with previous studies, which showed the same moderate negative relationship (Ashford, et al., 1989; Davy, et al., 1997; Hellgren, et al., 1999; Rosenblatt, et al., 1999; Sverke, et al., 2002). This study confirms the view that perceived job insecurity could be seen as a job stressor. From the viewpoint of stress theory, perceived job insecurity can be seen considered as a threat to individual employees’ well-being and has negative consequences for employee’s job

attitudes (Mauno et al., 2005). A widely used theoretical explanation is the prevalence of a 'psychological contract'. Employees perceive the experience of job insecurity as a violation of the psychological contract with their employer (Sverke et al., 2002); the trade-off between security from the side of the employer and loyalty on part of the employee changes. In an insecure job situation employees perceive a discrepancy between the level of job security he or she desires and the level of job security the employer offers. This violation or contract breach should have negative consequences for the employee's commitment to their employer. The concept of psychological contract was not included as a variable and thus can only be used as a theoretical argumentation.

Next to this, a significant negative relation between the perception of job insecurity and continuance organizational commitment was not found. This finding is in contradiction with a previous study, in which Meyer and Allen (1991) found a moderate negative effect. Continuance commitment develops on the basis of the employees recognition of the investments made in the organization or the lack of employment alternatives (Allen & Meyer, 1996). Individuals high on continuance commitment remain at the organization because they need to. The assumed reaction to job insecurity by lowering continuance commitment and an increasing intent to leave the organization could be neutralized by the experience of a lack of employment alternatives. Although the current economic situation cannot be used as an explaining variable as it was not measured, an answer may be found here. Truck drivers employed in the professional cargo, the respondents in this study, are experiencing cutbacks in many organizations around them. They certainly recognize the impact of the economic crisis in their sector. As argued, the natural reaction towards the perception of job insecurity would be to develop intent to leave the organization and move towards another. As the employment alternatives may be limited (transport organizations are in general laying off employees instead of hiring them) and truck drivers want to keep their employment, they may decide to remain in their current organization. Although speculative, an explanation for this result may be found here. Besides this argument, the relatively low proportion of explained variance can be seen as an alternative explanation. Job insecurity explains only two percent of the variance in continuance commitment, so the greatest variance is explained by variables other than the ones included in this study. Therefore, it is difficult to find a significant relation between the two variables. Explanations may be found in dynamics in other variables. Based on a meta-analysis of Meyer and colleagues (2002), the main antecedents of continuance organizational commitment are age, role conflict, availability of alternatives and transferability of skills and education.

The relationship between job insecurity and affective organizational commitment was not moderated by occupational commitment. Employees committed highly towards their occupation were not constrained from responding to the perception of job insecurity in a way that puts risk on their employment relationship, so the *theory of job adaptation* (Probst, 2000) does not provide the

explanation for employee's behavior in this study. An important factor in not finding the moderating relationship is the homogeneous sample. It was found that respondents with a high commitment to their occupation were highly committed to their organization as well. In other words, those variables were interrelated. Instead of the assumed moderating effect, job insecurity did have a direct negative relationship with occupational commitment, similar to affective organizational commitment. Apparently, employees feeling insecure lower their commitment towards their occupation as a reaction to this job stressor. It is difficult to give an theoretical explanation for this finding, but a possible explanation could be that because of an experienced lack of alternatives, an individual shows less commitment towards their occupation in a reaction to perceptions of job insecurity as he or she might see more job opportunities in a different occupation. A different argumentation to explain the negative effect could be that an employee's uncertainty about the future or about whether to lose or retain the present job leads to a general feeling or attitude of withdrawal towards the to be lost object. Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt (1984) specify this by noting that as a reaction to the anticipation of job loss 'workers begin the grieving process and psychologically withdraw from the to be lost object'. They argue that the grief reaction is a better predictor than the rational model (Greenhalgh, 1979). The employees in this study might be afraid to leave their job and to lose their employment in their current occupation, so they psychologically withdraw from their occupation. The most logical explanation for this finding is the relatedness of the concepts of organizational commitment and occupational commitment.

The most significant relationship was found between occupational commitment and affective organizational commitment. Literature provides evidence for occupational commitment being an antecedent of organizational commitment (e.g. Vandenberg & Scarpello, 1994; Blau & Boal, 1989; Morrow & Goetz, 1988; Morrow & Wirth, 1989). The research stream focused on individual's propensities to become organizationally committed in the long run recognizes that the strength of commitment depends on different factors brought into the organization by the individual, such as personal characteristics, expectations and other factors (Vandenberg & Seo, 1992; Vandenberg & Scarpello, 1994). They include a time-component in the argumentation, assuming that occupational commitment is formed prior to organizational entry. Their results indicated that occupational commitment could be seen as an important propensity factor in the development of organizational commitment (Vandenberg & Scarpello, 1994). The association between the two was strongest in employment settings valuing the occupation to the highest degree, a factor not taken into account in this study. Organizational commitment depends on a perceived match between a person's own values and those espoused by the organization (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986; Vandenberg & Scarpello, 1994). In other words, a low psychological attachment to an occupation does not fit in an employment setting that values that occupation and this poor fit leads to low commitment to the

organization. The exclusion of the factor of employment setting can be seen as a limitation, as no conclusions can be drawn based on the results. Further research on the dynamics between occupational- and organizational commitment should certainly take this factor into account. Logically, the positive relationship between the two variables might further indicate that when an individual feels emotionally attached towards his or her occupation, the employment relationship is nourished as this is a contract between the employee and the employing firm. Employees want to remain in their current occupation and the best way to achieve this is to stay at their current employer.

It is interesting to make a case for what the results would have been when the effects of job insecurity were investigated not in times of economic recession, but for instance in an economic period of boom. The negative effect of job insecurity on affective organizational commitment would probably remain, as the employee will still experience a psychological contract breach. The probability of finding a significant negative relationship with continuance commitment would increase, because it seems plausible that employees would experience more job opportunities outside the organization so their continuance commitment to their employer decreases. The negative relationship between job insecurity and occupational commitment would probably become weaker, as in periods of boom opportunities within the occupation but in a different organization increase and there is no need to become less committed.

Limitations and recommendations for further research

In addition to the limitations already noted, some others need to be addressed. Most of them stem from the method of analysis. The first limitation is the relatively small sample, which leads to less statistical power for finding significant relationships. Though, significant relationships were found so future research with a larger sample seems meaningful. The second limitation of this study is that the results are based on cross-sectional data. This means that the sample is observed by items at a particular point in time. There is no time ordering between the variables as data is collected simultaneously, so there is an absence of causal analysis. This implies that only *inferences* about causality can be drawn based on theoretical and logical argumentation. Closely related to this is the problem of 'reverse causation', the possibility that a dependent variable affects any of the independent variables. A regression model based on cross-sectional data cannot determine the direction of the causation. In this study, it could be possible that for instance occupational commitment has an influence on the perception of job insecurity. Therefore, future research could use a longitudinal research method to draw conclusions about the causality between job insecurity and the different types of commitment. This would give more insight in the dynamics between the constructs at individual level of analysis, instead of only speculation. Third, inherent in a survey

design is the use of self-report measures of work behavior or attitudes. Obvious problems associated with this type of data collection are socially desirable answers and common method variance. This latter problem concerns the use of one questionnaire to obtain all data about perceptions of job insecurity, experienced occupational commitment and commitment to the organization. It is possible that relationships between the variables are influenced, because respondent's perceptions of one variable remain while answering questions about another variable. The fourth limitation stems from the fact that only members of one occupation were studied. This limits the generalizability of the results to other occupations. It would be good to see these findings replicated with other occupations in further research. Next, conversations with respondents indicated that some questions were formulated in a too difficult way. Respondents overall had a relatively low level of education and as a matter of fact, even after explanation by the researcher, these questions may have been misinterpreted which may have influenced the results. This points to the importance of aligning the questionnaire with the target group of respondents. Last but not least, an important limitation is the focus only on commitment as consequences of job insecurity while outcome variables of commitment that are relevant for organizations were not included. This limits the meaningfulness of the observed relationships, as the critical organizational processes of organizational behavior were not addressed completely (Vandenberg & Scarpello, 1994). Further research should include an outcome variable as turnover behavior, organizational citizenship behavior or performance to be more meaningful for organizations.

Relevance for both theory and practice

This study contributed to the scientific body of knowledge about the relationships between the perception of job insecurity and different types of commitment: affective- and continuance organizational commitment and commitment to the occupation. First of all, the combination of these three variables in one conceptual model is fairly unique, as previous studies did not make such a combination. Those studies either combined job insecurity and organizational commitment as a consequence or linked occupational commitment and organizational commitment with each other, not both dynamics in one research model. Second, results of this study were in some cases similar to previous empirical findings, but relationships were confirmed in a specific occupation. Taking truck drivers in professional cargo as subjects, this study contributes to scientific knowledge by taking into account a specific type of employee.

The results of this study can be of practical relevance as well. For employers it is of importance to have committed employees or to stimulate employee's commitment. Affective commitment to the organization as well as the occupation can be seen as drivers for functional organizational behavior. As both forms of commitment are negatively affected by perceptions of job insecurity,

managers should try hard to reduce or remove those feelings especially when they are unfounded. In other words, managers should send strong and clear signals towards their employees when the actual threat of job loss does not exist. Besides, occupational commitment turned out to be an antecedent of organizational commitment apart from the inability to draw causal conclusions. HR managers responsible for recruitment and selection should take occupational commitment into account as one of the selection criteria when selecting new employees. This could on the one hand induce the overall level of craftsmanship in the organization and on the other reinforce the commitment of employees to their organization.

Literature

- Allen, N. J., & Meyer, J. P. (1990). The measurement and antecedents of affective, continuance, and normative commitment to the organization. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, 63, 1-18.
- Allen, N. J., & Meyer, J. P. (1996). Affective, continuance, and normative commitment to the organization: An examination of construct validity. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 49, 252-276.
- Allison, P. D. (1999). *Multiple regression: A primer*. Thousand Oaks: Pine Forge Press.
- Aranya, N., Pollock, J., & Amernic, J. (1981). An examination of professional commitment in public accounting. *Accounting, Organizations and Society*, 6(4), 271-280.
- Armstrong-Stassen, M. (1993). Survivors' reactions to a workforce reduction: A comparison of blue-collar workers and their supervisors. *Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences*, 10(4), 334-343.
- Ashford, S. J., Lee, C., & Bobko, P. (1989). Content, causes, and consequences of job insecurity: A theory-based measure and substantive test. *The Academy of Management Journal*, 32(4), 803-829.
- Baarda, D. B., De Goede, M. P. M., & Kalmijn, M. (2007). *Basisboek enquêteren: Handleiding voor het maken van een vragenlijst en het voorbereiden en afnemen van enquêtes* (2nd ed.). Groningen: Wolters-Noordhoff.
- Baron, R. M., & Kenny, D. A. (1986). The moderator-mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 51(6), 1173-1182.
- Becker, T. E., Randall, D. M., & Riegel, C. D. (1995). The multidimensional view of commitment and the theory of reasoned action: A comparative evaluation. *Journal of Management*, 21(4), 617-638.
- Blau, G. (1985). The measurement and prediction of career commitment. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, 58, 277-288.
- Blau, G., & Boal, K. (1989). Using job involvement and organizational commitment interactively to predict turnover. *Journal of Management*, 15(1), 115-127.
- Blau, G. (2001). On assessing the construct validity of two multidimensional constructs: Occupational commitment and occupational entrenchment. *Human Resource Management Review*, 11, 279-298.
- Blau, G. (2003). Testing for a four-dimensional structure of occupational commitment. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 76, 469-488.

- Cheng, G. H.-L., & Chan, D. K.-S. (2008). Who suffers more from job insecurity? A meta-analytic review. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 57(2), 272-303.
- Davy, J. A., Kinicki, A. J., & Scheck, C. L. (1997). A test of job security's direct and mediated effects on withdrawal cognitions. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 18, 323-349.
- De Gilder, D., Van den Heuvel, H., & Ellemers, N. (1997). Het 3-componenten model van commitment. *Gedrag en Organisatie*, 10, 95-106.
- De Weerd, Y., De Witte, H., Catellani, P., & Milesi, P. (2004). *Turning right? Socio-economic change and the receptiveness of European workers to the extreme right*. Leuven: Hoger Instituut voor de Arbeid - KULeuven.
- De Witte, H. (2000). Arbeidsethos en jobonzekerheid: Meting en gevolgen voor welzijn, tevredenheid en inzet op het werk [Work ethic and job insecurity: measurement and consequences for well-being, satisfaction and performance]. In R. Bouwen, K. De Witte, H. De Witte, & T. Taillieu (Eds.). *Van groep naar gemeenschap. Liber amicorum Prof. Dr. Leo Lagrou*, 325-350.
- De Witte, H. (2005). Job insecurity: Review of the international literature on definitions, prevalence, antecedents and consequences. *Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 31(4), 1-6.
- De Witte, H., & Näswall, K. (2003). Objective vs. subjective job insecurity: Consequences of temporary work for job satisfaction and organizational commitment in four European countries. *Economic and Industrial Democracy*, 24(2), 149-188.
- Dekker, S. W. A., & Schaufeli, W. B. (1995). The effects of job insecurity on psychological health and withdrawal: A longitudinal study. *Australian Psychologist*, 30, 57-63.
- Donker van Heel, P., Kans, K., Van Nuland, E., & De Kogel, M. (2009). *Arbeidsmarktonderzoek 2009: Arbeidsmarkt en scholing in het beroepsgoederenvervoer over de weg*. Alphen aan de Rijn: VTL: ECORYS.
- Finegold, D., Mohrman, S., & Spreitzer, G. M. (2002). Age effects on the predictors of technical workers' commitment and willingness to turnover. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 23(5), 655-674.
- Greenhalgh, L. (1979). *Job security and the disinvolvement syndrome: An exploration of patterns of worker behaviour under conditions of anticipatory grieving over job loss*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Cornell University.
- Greenhalgh, L., & Rosenblatt, Z. (1984). Job insecurity: Toward conceptual clarity. *The Academy of Management Review*, 9(3), 438-448.
- Hartley, J., Jacobson, D., Klandermans, B., & Van Vuuren, T. (1991). *Job insecurity: coping with jobs at risk*. London: Sage Publications.

- Hellgren, J., & Sverke, M. (2003). Does job insecurity lead to impaired well-being or vice versa? Estimation of cross-lagged effects using latent variable modelling. *Journal of Organizational behavior*, 24(2), 215-236.
- Hellgren, J., Sverke, M., & Isaksson, K. (1999). A two-dimensional approach to job insecurity: consequences for employee attitudes and well-being. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 8, 179-195.
- Irving, P. G., Coleman, D. F., & Cooper, C. L. (1997). Further assessments of a three-component model of occupational commitment: Generalizability and differences across occupations. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 82(3), 444-452.
- Jaros, J. A. (1997). An assessment of Meyer and Allen's (1991) three-component model of organizational commitment and turnover intentions. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 51, 319-337.
- Lee, K., Carswell, J. J., & Allen, N. J. (2000). A meta-analytic review of occupational commitment: Relations with person- and work-related variables. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 85(5), 799-811.
- Mathieu, J. E., & Zajac, D. M. (1990). A review and meta-analysis of the antecedents, correlates, and consequences of organizational commitment. *Psychological Bulletin*, 108(2), 171-194.
- Mauno, S., Kinnunen, U., Mäkikangas, A., & Nätti, J. (2005). Psychological consequences of fixed-term employment and perceived job insecurity among health care staff. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 14(3), 209-237.
- Meyer, J. P., & Allen, N. J. (1991). A three-component conceptualization of organizational commitment. *Human Resource Management Review*, 1, 64-98.
- Meyer, J. P., & Allen, N. J. (1997). *Commitment in the workplace: Theory, research and application*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Meyer, J. P., Allen, N. J., & Smith, C. A. (1993). Commitment to organizations and occupations: Extension and test of a three-component conceptualization. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 78(4), 538-551.
- Meyer, J. P., & Herscovitch, L. (2001). Commitment in the workplace: Toward a general model. *Human Resource Management Review*, 11, 299-326.
- Meyer, J. P., Stanley, D.J., Herscovitch, L., & Topolnytsky, L. (2002). Affective, continuance, and normative commitment to the organization: A meta-analysis of antecedents, correlates, and consequences. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 61, 20-52.
- Morrow, P. C. (1983). Concept redundancy in organizational research: The case of work commitment. *The Academy of Management Journal*, 8(3), 486-500.

- Morrow, P.C., & Goetz, J.F. (1988). Professionalism as a form of work commitment. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 32, 92-111.
- Morrow, P.C., & Wirth, R.E. (1989). Work commitment among salaried professionals. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 34, 40-56.
- Mowday, R. T., Steers, R. M., & Porter, L. W. (1979). The measurement of organizational commitment. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 14, 224-247.
- Näswall, K., & De Witte, H. (2003). Who feels insecure in Europe? Predicting job insecurity from background variables. *Economic and Industrial Democracy*, 24(2), 189-215.
- O'Reilly, C., & Chatman, J. (1986). Organizational commitment and psychological attachment: The effects of compliance, identification, and internalization on prosocial behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 71(3), 492-499.
- Probst, T. M. (2000). Wedded to the job: Moderating effects of job involvement on the consequences of job insecurity. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 5(1), 63-73.
- Rosenblatt, Z., & Ruvio, A. (1996). A test of a multidimensional model of job insecurity: The case of Israeli teachers. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 17, 587-605.
- Rosenblatt, Z., Talmud, I., & Ruvio, A. (1999). A gender-based framework of the experience of job insecurity and its effects on work attitudes of Israeli schoolteachers. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 8, 197-217.
- Rousseau, D. M. (1995). *Psychological contracts in organizations*. London: SAGE.
- Sennett, R. (2008). *De ambachtsman: De mens als maker*. Amsterdam: Meulenhoff.
- Sverke, M., & Hellgren, J. (2002). The nature of job insecurity: Understanding employment uncertainty on the brink of a new millennium. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 51(1), 23-42.
- Sverke, M., Hellgren, J., & Näswall, K. (2002). No security: A meta-analysis and review of job insecurity and its consequences. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 7(3), 242-264.
- Vandenberg, R.J., & Seo, J.H. (1992). Placing recruiting effectiveness in perspective: A cognitive explication of the job-choice and organizational-entry period. *Human Resource Management Review*, 2, 239-273.
- Vandenberg, R.J., & Scarpello, V. (1994). A longitudinal assessment of the determinant relationship between employee commitments to the occupation and the organization. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 15(6), 535-547.
- Velthoven, A. (2009). Aantal faillissementen transport blijft stijgen. Retrieved July 15, 2009, from <http://www.ttm.nl/nieuws/id25359-aantal-faillissementen-transport-blijft-stijgen.html>

Appendix A.

The questionnaire

Algemene gegevens

Er volgen eerst een aantal vragen over persoonlijke kenmerken en kenmerken betreffende uw werk. Geef aan wat op u van toepassing is en geeft zo nauwkeurig mogelijk antwoord.

Wat is uw geslacht? 1.1

- ☐ Man
☐ Vrouw

Wat is uw leeftijd? 1.2

____ Jaar

Wat is uw beroep? 1.3

Wat is uw type dienstverband? 1.4

- ☐ Vast (*ga door naar vraag 1.6*)
☐ Tijdelijk (bijvoorbeeld een contract voor bepaalde tijd, uitzendwerk, etc.)

Ik heb een tijdelijk contract/tijdelijke aanstelling omdat... 1.5

1	2	3	4	5
Helemaal niet mee eens	eerder niet mee eens	deels eens, deels oneens	eerder mee eens	helemaal mee eens

ik het moeilijk vind een vaste baan te vinden.	1	2	3	4	5
--	---	---	---	---	---

het me momenteel beter uitkomt (bijv. familie, studie, vrije tijd...).	1	2	3	4	5
--	---	---	---	---	---

het me een hoger loon biedt dan andere arbeidscontracten/aanstellingen.	1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---	---

het me meer vrijheid geeft.	1	2	3	4	5
-----------------------------	---	---	---	---	---

ik zo een vast contract hoop te krijgen.	1	2	3	4	5
--	---	---	---	---	---

het me een aanvullend inkomen biedt.	1	2	3	4	5
--------------------------------------	---	---	---	---	---

ik ervaring en expertise kan opdoen met verschillende taken en banen.	1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---	---

het contract/de aanstelling hoorde bij de baan die ik wou.	1	2	3	4	5
--	---	---	---	---	---

dit het enige type contract/aanstelling was dat ik kon krijgen.	1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---	---

Hoe lang bent u al in dienst bij uw huidige werkgever? 1.6

____ Jaren en ____ Maanden

Wat voor goederen of producten vervoert uw werkgever? (*kies één of meerdere antwoorden*). 1.7

- | | |
|--|--|
| <input type="radio"/> landbouwproducten; levende dieren
<input type="radio"/> voedingsproducten; veevoeder
<input type="radio"/> vaste brandstoffen
<input type="radio"/> aardolie en aardolieproducten | <input type="radio"/> ertsen en metaalresiduen
<input type="radio"/> metalen; metalen halffabricaten
<input type="radio"/> ruwe mineralen; bouwmaterialen
<input type="radio"/> meststoffen |
| | <input type="radio"/> chemische producten
<input type="radio"/> anders, namelijk _____
_____ |

Betrokkenheid tot de organisatie

Nu volgen een aantal stellingen over uw betrokkenheid tot het bedrijf waarbinnen u werkzaam bent. U dient aan te geven in hoeverre u de stelling op uzelf van toepassing acht. De antwoordmogelijkheden zijn:

1	2	3	4	5
Helemaal niet mee eens	eerder niet mee eens	deels eens, deels oneens	eerder mee eens	helemaal mee eens

2.1	--	-	-/+	+	++
Ik ervaar problemen van dit bedrijf als mijn eigen problemen	1	2	3	4	5
Ik voel me emotioneel gehecht aan dit bedrijf	1	2	3	4	5
Dit bedrijf betekent veel voor mij	1	2	3	4	5
Ik voel me niet thuis bij dit bedrijf	1	2	3	4	5
Ik voel me als een 'deel van de familie' in dit bedrijf	1	2	3	4	5

2.2	1	2	3	4	5
Het zou voor mij op dit moment moeilijk zijn om weg te gaan bij dit bedrijf, ook al zou ik dat willen	1	2	3	4	5
Ik heb het gevoel dat ik te weinig alternatieven heb om nu ontslag te nemen	1	2	3	4	5
Als ik ontslag neem wordt het makkelijk om een andere baan te vinden	1	2	3	4	5
Er zou teveel in mijn leven verstoord worden als ik nu ontslag zou nemen	1	2	3	4	5
Ik ben bang voor wat er zou kunnen gebeuren als ik mijn baan opzeg, zonder meteen een nieuwe baan te hebben	1	2	3	4	5

Uw beroep als chauffeur

Er volgen nu een aantal stellingen die te maken hebben met uw baan en uw beroep als vrachtwagenchauffeur in het beroepsgoederenvervoer. De antwoordmogelijkheden zijn:

1	2	3	4	5
Helemaal niet mee eens	eerder niet mee eens	deels eens, deels oneens	eerder mee eens	helemaal mee eens

3.1	--	-	-/+	+	++
Ik ben bang dat ik ontslagen zal worden	1	2	3	4	5
Ik voel me onzeker over de toekomst van mijn baan	1	2	3	4	5
Ik denk dat ik hier zal kunnen blijven werken	1	2	3	4	5
Ik ben er zeker van dat ik mijn werk zal kunnen behouden	1	2	3	4	5
Er bestaat een kans dat ik binnenkort mijn werk zal verliezen	1	2	3	4	5

3.2

	--	-	-/+	+	++
Ik ervaar problemen binnen dit chauffeursvak als mijn eigen problemen	1	2	3	4	5
Ik voel me emotioneel gehecht aan mijn vak als chauffeur	1	2	3	4	5
Dit vak als chauffeur betekent weinig voor mij	1	2	3	4	5
Ik voel me thuis in dit chauffeursvak	1	2	3	4	5
Ik voel me als een 'deel van de familie' in dit vak	1	2	3	4	5

3.3

Ik probeer vriendelijk te zijn in de omgang met mijn direct leidinggevende.	1	2	3	4	5
Ik werk harder als ik weet dat mijn direct leidinggevende de resultaten te zien zal krijgen.	1	2	3	4	5
Ik probeer de verantwoordelijkheid naar me toe te trekken als iets goed gegaan is, zelfs al was ik niet als enige verantwoordelijk.	1	2	3	4	5
Ik probeer mij zo te gedragen dat ik een goede indruk maak bij anderen.	1	2	3	4	5
Ik probeer mijn gedrag zo aan te passen dat ik een positief beeld achterlaat bij anderen.	1	2	3	4	5
Ik vind het niet belangrijk een goede indruk te maken bij anderen.	1	2	3	4	5
Ik doe me graag voor als een vriendelijk en beleefd iemand.	1	2	3	4	5
Ik ben niet gevoelig voor de indruk die anderen van mij hebben.	1	2	3	4	5

1	2	3	4	5
Helemaal niet mee eens	eerder niet mee eens	deels eens, deels oneens	eerder mee eens	helemaal mee eens

3.4

Ik heb een grote kans om hier een andere baan te krijgen, als ik daarnaar zou zoeken.	1	2	3	4	5
Ik heb een grote kans om hier een betere baan te krijgen, als ik daarnaar zou zoeken.	1	2	3	4	5
Ik kan hier gemakkelijk een andere baan vinden, in plaats van mijn huidige job.	1	2	3	4	5
Ik kan hier gemakkelijk een betere baan vinden, in plaats van mijn huidige job.	1	2	3	4	5

De volgende stellingen gaan over de baanmogelijkheden buiten deze organisatie.

Ik heb een grote kans om ergens anders werk te vinden, als ik daarnaar zou zoeken.	1	2	3	4	5
Ik heb een grote kans om ergens anders beter werk te vinden, als ik daarnaar zou zoeken.	1	2	3	4	5
Ik kan gemakkelijk ergens anders een baan vinden, in plaats van mijn huidige baan.	1	2	3	4	5
Ik kan gemakkelijk ergens anders een betere baan vinden, in plaats van mijn huidige baan.	1	2	3	4	5
Ik ben ervan overtuigd dat ik snel een baan kan vinden bij een andere werkgever.	1	2	3	4	5
Ik ben ervan overtuigd dat ik snel een betere baan kan vinden bij een andere werkgever.	1	2	3	4	5

4.6

Ik ga ver met het helpen van collega's met werk-gerelateerde problemen.	1	2	3	4	5
Ik help vrijwillig collega's om zich thuis te voelen in hun nieuwe baan.	1	2	3	4	5
Ik ben oprecht geïnteresseerd en beleefd tegen collega's, zelfs onder de meest uitdagende zakelijke of persoonlijke situaties.	1	2	3	4	5
Ik sla bijna nooit een werkdag over ook al heb ik een goede reden om dit wel te doen.	1	2	3	4	5
Ik voer mijn taken uit met uitzonderlijk weinig fouten.	1	2	3	4	5
Ik voer mijn taken uiterst zorgvuldig uit	1	2	3	4	5
Ik haal mijn deadlines voor het voltooien van mijn werk niet altijd.	1	2	3	4	5

De volgende vragen gaan over een deel van uw persoonlijkheid. U dient aan te geven in hoeverre u het eens dan wel niet eens bent met de stelling. De antwoordcategorieën gaan van 1 tot 6, met 1 = helemaal niet mee eens, 2 = niet mee eens, 3 = een beetje oneens, 4 = een beetje eens, 5 = mee eens en 6 = helemaal mee eens.

5.1

	---	--	-	+	++	+++
Of ik wel of geen leider word hangt voornamelijk af van mijn eigen vermogen	1	2	3	4	5	6
Of ik wel of niet betrokken raak bij een auto-ongeluk hangt voornamelijk niet af van hoe goed ik zelf kan autorijden	1	2	3	4	5	6
Wanneer ik plannen maak, ben ik er bijna zeker van dat deze ook gebeuren	1	2	3	4	5	6
De hoeveelheid vrienden die ik heb, hangt er voornamelijk van af hoe een leuk persoon ik ben	1	2	3	4	5	6
Ik kan behoorlijk sterk bepalen wat er zal gebeuren in mijn leven	1	2	3	4	5	6
Normaal gesproken ben ik niet in staat mijn eigen belangen te verdedigen	1	2	3	4	5	6
Als ik voor mekaar krijg wat ik wil, komt dat normaal gesproken omdat ik daar hard voor heb gewerkt	1	2	3	4	5	6

Hartelijk dank voor uw medewerking!

Appendix B.

Factor Analysis

Job Insecurity

Items	Component 1
Ik ben bang dat ik ontslagen zal worden	.685
Ik voel me onzeker over de toekomst van mijn baan	.746
Ik denk niet dat ik hier zal kunnen blijven werken	.828
Ik ben er niet zeker van dat ik mijn werk zal kunnen behouden	.833
Er bestaat een kans dat ik binnenkort mijn werk zal verliezen	.822
<i>KMO = .796; # components with Eig. val. > 1 = 1 (3.08).</i>	

(Affective) Occupational Commitment

Items	Component 1
Ik ervaar problemen binnen dit chauffeursvak als mijn eigen problemen	.556
Ik voel me emotioneel gehecht aan mijn vak als chauffeur	.809
Dit vak als chauffeur betekent veel voor mij	.613
Ik voel me thuis in dit chauffeursvak	.708
Ik voel me als een 'deel van de familie' in dit vak	.795
<i>KMO = .738; # components with Eig. val. > 1 = 1 (2.475)</i>	

Affective Organizational Commitment

Items	Component 1
Ik ervaar problemen van dit bedrijf als mijn eigen problemen	.783
Ik voel me emotioneel gehecht aan dit bedrijf	.902
Dit bedrijf betekent veel voor mij	.799
Ik voel me 'als een deel van de familie' in dit bedrijf	.819
<i>KMO = .744; # components with Eig. val. > 1 = 1 (2.736)</i>	

Continuance Organizational Commitment

Items	Component 1
Het zou voor mij op dit moment moeilijk zijn om weg te gaan bij dit bedrijf, ook al zou ik dat willen	.406
Ik heb het gevoel dat ik te weinig alternatieven heb om nu ontslag te nemen	.719
Er zou teveel in mijn leven verstoord worden als ik nu ontslag zou nemen	.802
Ik ben bang voor wat er zou kunnen gebeuren als ik mijn baan opzeg, zonder meteen een nieuwe baan te hebben	.748
<i>KMO = .635; # components with Eig. val. > 1 = 1 (1.883)</i>	

Factor analysis with items of all variables included.

The correlation matrix of the Oblimin-rotation showed the following correlations between components:

Component correlation matrix				
Component	1	2	3	4
1	1			
2	-.15	1		
3	-.03	.14	1	
4	.35	-.17	.06	1

Components are not highly correlated, only 1 & 4 are moderately correlated. It is decided that it is reasonable to assume that components are not related, the assumption underlying the Varimax-rotation. After comparing the Varimax- and Oblimin-output, no discrepancies between the results of the two approaches to rotation exist. As a result, the Varimax rotated solution is presented below (although the correlation between factor 1 and 4 is $>.30$). Results from the 'Rotated Component Matrix', part of the Varimax rotation:

Component correlation matrix				
	Component			
	1	2	3	4
B29	.83			
B30	.82			
B28	.82			
B27	.70			
B26	.67			
A17		.83		
A16		.81		
A20		.74		
A18		.70		
O31		.70		
O34			.78	
O32			.77	
O35			.70	
O33			.56	
C24				.80
C25				.76
C22				.70
C21			.36	.36