

Andrea Bobbio, Anna Maria Manganelli, Silvano Cannone

Job insecurity, subjective well-being and the moderating role of locomotion

Department of Philosophy, Sociology, Education and Applied Psychology, University of Padova, Italy

ABSTRACT. *This paper addresses the moderating role of locomotion – a functional and fundamental dimension of self-regulation – in the relationship between job insecurity and subjective well-being. A group of 205 adult Italian workers took part in the research by filling out an anonymous questionnaire that included measures of job insecurity, locomotion, satisfaction with life, positive and negative affect. Results showed that job insecurity was positively related to negative affect and negatively related to life satisfaction and positive affect. Locomotion was positively related to life satisfaction and positive affect and acted as a moderator only in the case of the link between job insecurity and negative affect. This means that when perceived insecurity is high, negative affect is lower for respondents scoring high versus low on locomotion. Results and suggestions for future studies are presented and discussed.*

Key words: *job insecurity, subjective well-being, locomotion.*

RIASSUNTO. L'articolo presenta i risultati di uno studio sul ruolo moderatore della 'locomozione' (locomotion) – una dimensione funzionale fondamentale della regolazione individuale della condotta – nella relazione che esiste tra insicurezza lavorativa e benessere soggettivo. Un gruppo di 205 adulti lavoratori italiani ha preso parte alla ricerca compilando un questionario anonimo che includeva misure di insicurezza lavorativa, locomozione, soddisfazione per la vita, affettività positiva e negativa. I risultati hanno mostrato l'esistenza di una relazione positiva tra insicurezza lavorativa e affettività negativa e di una relazione negativa tra insicurezza lavorativa e affettività positiva. Inoltre, la locomozione è risultata essere positivamente correlata alla soddisfazione per la vita e all'affettività positiva e ha agito come moderatore solo nel caso della relazione esistente tra insicurezza lavorativa e affettività negativa. Pertanto, quando l'insicurezza lavorativa è percepita come elevata, coloro che mostrano i punteggi più elevati sulla scala di locomozione sperimentano un livello più basso di affettività negativa rispetto a coloro che, sulla medesima scala di locomozione, ottengono punteggi più bassi. I risultati, unitamente ad alcuni suggerimenti per applicazioni e studi futuri, vengono presentati e discussi.

Parole chiave: *job insecurity, subjective well-being, locomotion.*

Sverke, Hellgren, and Näswall (1) defined job insecurity as the “subjectively experienced anticipation of a fundamental and involuntary event” (p. 243) related to job loss. Research on this topic increased significantly after the mid-80s as a consequence of major changes which have affected the labor market and have been experienced all around the world, such as globalization, widespread diffusion of information and communication technologies, increase of fixed-term and temporary employment contracts, cost containment strategies and organizational restructuring.

Job insecurity is perceived as a real threat for the near future and consequently belongs to the unpleasant family of work stressors, which carry detrimental consequences for both individuals and organizations (1; 2). As an example, research evidence showed that high levels of job insecurity are related to high levels of job burnout (e.g., Bosnam, Buitendach and Laba (3) found a large positive correlation for the emotional exhaustion dimension, a large positive correlation for cynicism and a moderate negative correlation for professional efficacy) and to low levels of work engagement (e.g., an average moderate positive correlation between affective and cognitive dimensions of job insecurity and work engagement was obtained by Bosnam, Rothmann, and Buitendach, 4). Moreover, Silla, De Cuyper, Gracia, Peirò, and De Witte (5) showed that job insecurity was significantly and negatively associated with life satisfaction when socio-demographics variables and perceived employability were controlled. Kinnunen, Feldt, and Mauno (6) in a cross-lagged research found that a cumulative relationship existed between job insecurity and self-esteem: i.e., high job insecurity decreased global self-esteem over a one-year period, but at the same time, and to the same extent, low self-esteem produced high job insecurity.

As concerns organizations, Ashford, Lee, and Bobko (7) found that job insecurity scores were negatively associated with measures of job satisfaction, organizational commitment and trust in the organization. Furthermore, Sverke, et al. (1) in their meta-analysis found that job insecurity was correlated to an increase in the intention to leave the organization. In Italy, Chirumbolo and Areni (8) reported that it was also positively associated with absenteeism and negatively associated with job performance.

Because of the negative consequences connected with job insecurity, it is important to understand how these could be buffered by various moderating variables (2; 9). The present study focused on the relationship between job-insecurity, individual differences and subjective well-being and, in particular, addressed the moderating role of locomotion (a functional dimension of self-regulation; see Kruglanski, *et al.*, 10) in the relationship between job insecurity and subjective well-being.

Job insecurity and subjective well-being

Several studies have analyzed the relationship between job insecurity and well-being of employees. Most of them are based on self-reported health data, adopting instruments which assess well-being, such as the General Health Questionnaire (11) that measures common minor disorders such as symptoms of anxiety and depression (12; 5), or other indicators of strain that can be ascribed to the job, such as job induced tension (12). Other studies have considered work-related well-being as captured by job burnout (particularly the emotional exhaustion dimension) and work engagement (3; 4; 13); furthermore, life satisfaction (5) or job dissatisfaction (12) have also been hypothesized as consequences of job insecurity.

In the present study, differently from the above-mentioned literature, we chose to take into consideration subjective well-being, a construct which was proposed within the Positive Psychology perspective (14) mainly thanks to the work of Edward F. Diener, and which focuses on people's own evaluations of their lives, including emotions, moods and satisfaction (15).

According to Diener (16) subjective well-being is a broad construct grouping together a number of correlated but distinct components, such as "life satisfaction (global judgment of one's own life), satisfaction with important domains (e.g., work satisfaction), positive affect (experiencing of many pleasant emotions and moods), and negative affect (experiencing of unpleasant emotions and moods)" (16, p. 34). Thus, subjective well-being is defined as an individual's cognitive and affective evaluation of his or her own life and it includes experiencing pleasant emotions, a low level of negative moods, and a high level of life satisfaction (17). Although the components of subjective well-being are usually correlated with each other (18), research showed that they do not overlap completely (19; 20; 21).

In the job insecurity literature, positive and negative affectivity, as captured by instruments different from the *Positive and Negative Affect Scale* (21), have sometimes been considered as antecedents or moderators of job insecurity in the small number of studies that have investigated whether certain personality dispositions are related to the experience of job insecurity (9). Naswäll, *et al.* (12) reported moderate positive associations between negative affectivity (assessed with the scale proposed by Agho, Price, and Hueller, 23) and job insecurity, while Bosnam, *et al.* (4) found a positive moderate correlation (using Kammann and Flett's Affectometer 2, 24). Our idea, however, was that individual perceptions of job insecurity may display a negative association with the components of

subjective well-being, including the experience of positive and negative emotional states.

The first group of hypotheses we put forward was as follows:

H1: job insecurity is positively related to negative affect (H1a), and it is negatively related to life satisfaction (H1b) and positive affect (H1c).

Job insecurity and individual differences

Despite the fact that individual differences are an important factor influencing the use of coping strategies towards stress (25), and are also associated with subjective well-being (18; 26), a limited amount of research was conducted on the relationship between job insecurity and individual differences variables (9). One example is the study by Bosman *et al.* (27) which showed that work locus of control (28) and dispositional optimism (29) were both associated with job insecurity: the external locus of control may increase the level of job insecurity, while dispositional optimism may decrease it.

According to Naswäll, *et al.* (12), personal disposition can influence the relationship between job insecurity and well-being because personality affects the evaluation that people make both of situations and their own personal well-being, thus also influencing the way they handle those situations. In their study on 400 female nurses at a Swedish acute care hospital, Naswäll, *et al.* (12) found that external locus of control moderated the effect of job insecurity on mental health complaints: that is, the positive relationship between perception of job insecurity and mental health complaints was stronger among nurses who reported higher vs. lower external locus of control scores.

In the present study the moderating effect of locomotion on the relationship between job insecurity and subjective well-being was investigated. To our knowledge, this is the first study dealing with the possible role played by locomotion within this important relation. Regulatory mode theory proposes that in pursuing their goals, people self-regulate their behavior following two essential orientations: locomotion and assessment (10). Locomotion has been defined as "the aspect of self-regulation concerned with movement from state to state and with committing the psychological resources that will initiate and maintain goal-related movement" (10, p. 794). Assessment, in contrast, "constitutes the comparative aspect of self-regulation concerned with critically evaluating entities or states, such as goals or means, in relation to alternatives in order to judge relative quality" (10, p.794). Basically, locomotion and assessment are individual differences variables: people with a strong orientation towards locomotion are focused on "doing" while people with a strong orientation towards assessment are focused on 'evaluating' and are less decisive and prompt than locomotors when it comes to taking action (10).

Of all the alternatives that lead to achieving a specific goal, locomotors usually choose the one that can reduce the distance to the desired objective without delay or diversions. Several studies (e.g., 10; 30) have attested that locomotion is positively related to achievement orientation, intrinsic motivation, positive affect, optimism and

self-esteem but is negatively related to negative affectivity. Furthermore, other research (e.g., 31; 32) has suggested that locomotors are less prone to counterfactual thinking and regret, preferring to move forward and leaving the past behind. Other studies have given support to the positive correlation existing between locomotion, job involvement and effort investment in work activities (e.g., 33), and between locomotion and performance (e.g., 34). Moreover, locomotion has also been found to be associated with a positive attitude towards organizational change (35). Organizational change usually carries with it a considerable amount of insecurity and tends to elicit resistance (e.g., 36). Therefore, locomotors, more than others, may be able to consider change, and also perhaps uncertainty, as a positive and dynamic experience rather than a threatening one. Lastly, Hong, Tan, and Chang (37) showed that, as far as subjective well-being was concerned, individuals high in locomotion had a higher level of satisfaction with life. In contrast, assessment was negatively associated with important personal resources (10), leaving individuals with fewer buffers to counter difficulties, also in the job field.

We chose locomotion over assessment as our focus since we argued that this kind of regulatory mode could buffer or mitigate the negative consequences of job insecurity on subjective well-being, since people who exhibit high levels of locomotion are more likely to be optimistic, to have a higher level of self-esteem, to have more positive attitudes toward change, to use more effective problem-solving strategies and to be more willing to accept new challenges. In general, under conditions of perceived job insecurity, people high on locomotion may be more prone to see the situation as an opportunity and not only as a threat, and this may temper the negative effects of job insecurity on subjective well-being.

Thus the second and third groups of hypotheses were:

H2: locomotion is negatively related to negative affect (H2a), and it is positively related to life satisfaction (H2b) and positive affect (H2c).

H3: locomotion moderates the relationship between job insecurity and subjective well-being so that the negative relationships between job insecurity, life satisfaction (H3a) and positive affect (H3b) are weaker under the condition of high versus low locomotion, and the positive relationship between job insecurity and negative affect is weaker under the condition of high versus low locomotion (H3c).

Method

Participants

A convenience sample of 205 adult workers took part in the research, of which 93 were men (45.4%) and 111 women (54.1%) (1 missing value). Age ranged between 18 and 61 years ($M = 35.33$, $SD = 11.34$) (10 missing data). Participants who lived in Southern Italy represented 52.2% ($N = 107$) of the total sample, while those living in Northern Italy stand for the remaining 45.8% ($N = 94$) (4 missing values). Seventy-three people (35.6%) were employed in the public sector and 130 (63.4%) in the private

sector (2 missing values). More than half of the participants ($N = 120$, 58.5%) had a permanent job position, while 82 (40%) had a fixed term employment contract (3 missing values). As concerns level of education, 42.4% declared they had a university degree ($N = 87$) and 57.1% ($N = 117$) a secondary school diploma (1 missing values). Most participants were employed as clerical workers ($N = 77$, 40.5%) and 40 (20.5%) were blue-collar workers; 28 people were health professionals (14.3%), 26 were schoolteachers (13.3%) and 14 individuals (7.1%) held a middle-management position (15 missing values). Tenure was higher than 6 years for 109 participants (53.2%), it ranged between 3 and 6 years for 42 (20.5%) people, and was lower than 3 years for 52 individuals (25.6%) (2 missing values).

Participants were all recruited by trained research assistants near their firms or offices and were asked to volunteer for an anonymous survey dealing with work attitudes and well-being. The interviewer, after a brief description of the research aim, distributed the questionnaire and the instructions for completion. No financial or other type of recompense was given. Participants were informed that they could refuse to answer any of the questions. They filled in the questionnaire autonomously and gave it back to the interviewer after a maximum of three days on scheduled appointments, where they also received a quick debrief as regards the actual aim of the study. As clearly specified to everyone before handing out the questionnaires, return of questionnaires was considered as an expression of full consent to participate in the study. Three hundred questionnaires were distributed and only the valid ones were retained: the response rate was equal to 68.3%.

Materials

Job insecurity was assessed with four items selected from the *Job Insecurity Questionnaire* by De Witte (38): two items regarded the cognitive comprehension of the possibility of a job loss ("I think that I might be dismissed in the near future" and "I am sure that I will be able to keep my job" (reversed score)), and the other two regarded the affective reaction to the feelings of job insecurity ("I fear that I might lose my job" and "I worry about the continuation of my career"). The response scale ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). De Witte (38) stated that, although the content of the affective and cognitive subscales do not overlap, a high correlation between them exists ($r = .76$). As concerns the present study, a principal component analysis was performed on the correlation matrix between the four items. Only one component with eigenvalue higher than 1 could be extracted which explained 64.54% of the total variance (eigenvalue = 2.58; factor loadings ranging between .85 and .68). Cronbach's alpha was equal to .82.

Locomotion was measured with the 12-item scale proposed by Kruglanski, et al. (10). Respondents were requested to assess the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with statements like "When I decide to do something, I can't wait to get started." The response scale ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Previous studies including Italian samples had established

content, construct and predictive validity of the scale (10), which was found to be internally consistent with Cronbach's alphas ranging between .78 and .85) and unidimensional. In this study, Cronbach's alpha was .81.

In line with the definition of subjective well-being proposed by Diener (16), we selected measures that evaluated both a person's cognitive assessment of satisfaction with their global life and the affective component of subjective well-being. As regards life satisfaction, the *Satisfaction with Life Scale* developed by Diener, et al. (20) was used. One example of its five items is: "In most ways my life is close to my ideal." The response scale ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). The Satisfaction with Life Scale is an internationally renowned instrument to measure the individual level of life satisfaction. Translations into various languages (including Italian) are available (see 39, and the Web Page: <http://internal.psychology.illinois.edu/~ediener/SWLS.html>). In the present sample, Cronbach's alpha turned out to be .83.

As regards Positive Affect and Negative Affect, five adjectives were used for the positive domain (i.e., active, strong, proud, determined, excited) and five for the negative domain (i.e., nervous, hostile, ashamed, distressed, irritable). Both groups were taken from the *Positive Affect and Negative Affect Scales* developed by Watson, et al. (21). In its Italian version (22) the Positive and Negative Affect Scale showed very good levels of internal consistency ($\alpha = .83$ for Positive Affect and $.87$ for Negative Affect). Additionally, test-retest reliability turned out to be good ($r = .76$ for Positive Affect and $r = .73$ for Negative Affect). Items were introduced by the statement "To what extent do you feel this way in general?" The response scale ranged from 1 (very slightly or not at all) to 5 (extremely). A principal component analysis with varimax rotation was performed on the ten adjectives and two components with eigenvalue higher than 1 emerged, which altogether accounted for 43.68% of the total variance. The analysis was repeated applying the principal axis method and imposing the oblimin rotation. The two dimensions showed a weak negative correlation ($-.18$). Cronbach's alpha was equal to $.83$ for the Positive Affect Scale and equal to $.81$ for the Negative Affect Scale. In conclusion, item selection did not affect the good psychometric properties of the scale.

At the end of the questionnaire there were a number of socio-demographic questions, such as gender (0 = woman; 1 = man), age, geographic area of residence, level of education, employment sector (0 = public sector; 1 = private sector), job contract (0 = permanent; 1 = fixed term), profession and tenure.

Data Analysis

Data analysis was performed via SPSS 23 and included reliability estimates by means of Cronbach's alpha and moderated hierarchical regression analyses with bias-corrected bootstrap confidence intervals.

Results

Composite scores for all scales were computed by averaging the answers to all the corresponding items. Table I presents mean scores, standard deviations and zero-order correlations for all variables. Gender was not linearly associated with all the variables considered. Age was negatively associated with private sector ($r = -.34, p < .01$), so that it seemed more likely to find younger workers in the private sector rather than the public sector; moreover, age was negatively correlated to fixed-term employment contract ($r = -.53, p < .01$) (which seemed more frequent among younger workers), job insecurity ($r = -.18, p < .05$) and positive affect ($r = -.21, p < .01$). As expected, job insecurity was negatively associated with life satisfaction ($r = -.23, p < .01$) and positive affect ($r = -.25, p < .01$); vice versa, it was positively correlated to negative affect ($r = .41, p < .01$). Locomotion, as expected, showed positive correlations with life satisfaction ($r = .30, p < .01$) and positive affect ($r = .50, p < .01$), while it turned out to be negatively correlated to negative affect ($r = -.17, p < .05$). Additionally, a low negative correlation emerged between locomotion and job insecurity ($r = -.17, p < .05$).

The predictions regarding the relationship between job insecurity and subjective well-being, and the interaction effect between job insecurity and locomotion, were all tested by means of three moderated hierarchical regression analyses, one for each of the components of subjective well-being considered here. Job contract and job insecurity were always first to be entered in the model.

Table I. Descriptive statistics and zero-order correlations

	M	SD	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.
1. Gender			-.13	.09	-.07	-.01	-.04	-.01	.07	.11
2. Age	35.33	11.35		-.34**	-.53**	-.18*	.01	-.04	-.21**	.04
3. Employment sector					.07	-.08	.13	.05	.16*	-.01
4. Job contract						.32**	-.07	-.16*	.02	.06
5. Job insecurity	3.04	1.45					-.17*	-.23**	-.25**	.41**
6. Locomotion	5.36	.76						.30**	.50**	-.17*
7. Life satisfaction	4.20	1.27							.38**	-.26**
8. Positive affect	3.79	.75								-.18*
9. Negative affect	2.33	.77								

Note: Gender (0 = woman; 1 = man). Employment sector (0 = public sector, 1 = private sector). Job contract (0 = permanent, 1 = fixed term). * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Locomotion was introduced at the second step, and the two-way interaction term was added at the third step. Age, gender and employment sector were not included in the regression models so as to keep the sample size adequate for the analysis. Only job contract was used as a control variable since it turned out to be correlated with both age and job insecurity (see Table I). Before carrying out the analyses, all continuous variables were standardized (40). Results are summarized in Table II.

Job contract, along with job insecurity, explained 6% of the variance in the case of life satisfaction, 9% for positive affect, and 18% for negative affect. When controlling for job insecurity, job contract was not associated with subjective well-being. In support of the first group of hypotheses, job insecurity was positively associated with negative affect (H1a) ($b = .45, p < .001$), negatively associated with life satisfaction (H1b) ($b = -.17, p < .05$) and positive affect (H1c) ($b = -.24, p < .001$). When introduced in the model, locomotion significantly increased the percentage of explained variance for life satisfaction and positive affect. Locomotion was positively associated with these outcome variables but it did not show any significant relation with negative affect ($b = -.11, p = .06$). These results supported hypotheses H2b and H2c. Finally, the interaction term between job insecurity and locomotion, which was entered in the model at step 3, led to a significant increase in the amount of variance explained only in the case of negative affect ($b = -.17, p < .05$). The application of the bootstrapping method with

1000 resamples was used in order to improve evaluation of significance of the b coefficient of the interaction term (40). The 95% bias corrected confidence interval ranged from $-.32$ to $-.06$, and because zero was not included in the interval, it can be concluded that locomotion significantly moderated the effect of job insecurity on negative affect. This significant interaction was graphically displayed (Figure 1) and examined more closely by calculating simple regression slopes at the high and low (+1 SD, -1 SD) levels of job insecurity. The relationship between job insecurity and negative affect was stronger for individuals scoring low on locomotion ($b = .62, t_{197} = 6.22, p < .0001$) than for those scoring high ($b = .28, t_{197} = 2.78, p < .007$). In conclusion, the third group of hypotheses (H3) was only partially supported and only H3c was backed up by data.

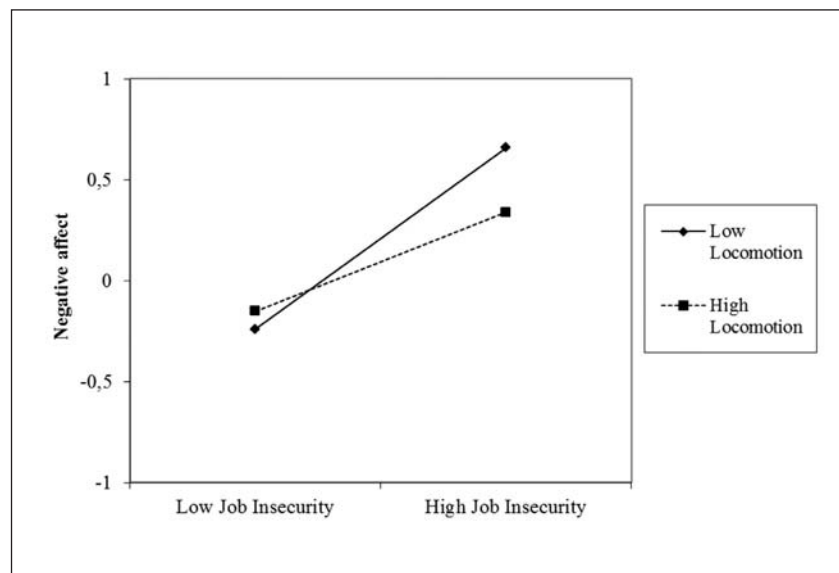


Figure 1. Interactive effect of job insecurity and locomotion on negative affect

Table II. Results of hierarchical regression analyses, unstandardized regression coefficients (N = 202)

Predictors	Life satisfaction			Positive affect			Negative affect		
	ΔR^2	b	SE	ΔR^2	b	SE	ΔR^2	b	SE
Step 1	.06**			.09***			.18***		
Job contract (J)		-.19	.15		.18	.14		-.17	.14
Job insecurity (I)		-.21**	.08		-.32***	.07		.46***	.07
Step 2	.06***			.22***			.02		
Job contract (J)		-.19	.15		.20	.12		-.17	.13
Job insecurity (I)		-.17*	.08		-.24***	.07		.44***	.07
Locomotion (L)		.24***	.07		.45***	.06		-.12	.06
Step 3	.00			.01			.03*		
Job contract (J)		-.19	.15		.19	.12		-.17	.13
Job insecurity (I)		-.17*	.08		-.24***	.07		.45***	.07
Locomotion (L)		.24***	.07		.44***	.06		-.11	.06
L x I		.05	.08		.11	.06		-.17*	.07
R ² (total)	.12**			.32**			.23***		

Note: *** $p < .001$; ** $p < .01$; * $p < .05$. All the VIF coefficients were lower than 1.15.

Discussion

The present study aimed at exploring the relationship between job-insecurity, subjective well-being and a relevant variable of individual differences which comprises the regulatory mode orientation called locomotion (10). The results achieved could be seen as useful acquisitions for those researchers interested in studying the moderators of the relation between perceived job insecurity and its consequences in terms of psychological well-being, since the buffering potential of individual difference variables still seems to be under-examined in the job insecurity literature.

Coherent with the first group of hypotheses, job insecurity was positively related to negative affect and negatively related to life satisfaction and positive affect. These results are in line with previous research (i.e., 12; 5), and showed that, even after controlling for a personality characteristic, job insecurity had a negative impact on subjective well-being.

Following the second group of hypotheses, locomotion was positively related both to life satisfaction and positive affect and showed main effects only on these components of subjective well-being. These results converged with the large empirical evidence supporting the existence of a strong relationship between locomotion and several positive outcomes (e.g., optimism, self-esteem and positive affect). In this study, the locomotion orientation did not display a significant main effect on negative affect when job insecurity was controlled. This leads us to believe that we have found a further indication of the importance of job insecurity both as a basis for negative affect states and in its role as stressor.

As concerns the third group of hypotheses, locomotion was expected to moderate the relationships between job insecurity and the components of subjective well-being. A significant interaction effect of locomotion on negative affect emerged, which supported only hypothesis H3c: that is, when perceived insecurity is high, negative affect seems to be lower for individuals scoring high versus low on locomotion. One explanation for the lack of moderating effects in the case of life satisfaction and positive affect may be that the basis for these kinds of individual judgments could be both wider and more complex than what the measures used in the present study allowed us to assess.

Altogether, locomotion seems to play a buffering or 'protective' role only in the case of the unfavorable consequences of job insecurity (i.e., negative moods), by lowering the perceived intensity of the negative feelings usually connected with insecure job perception, although not in the case of either positive moods or the overall evaluation of one's own life.

The percentage of explained variance ranged from low to moderate for all the regression analyses, especially in the case of life satisfaction and negative affect. Similar results were however also found in previous studies addressing the relation between job-insecurity and employee well-being (e.g., 12; 5; 41). It is obvious that people's well-being is influenced by many factors; therefore, the impact of a single work stressor, like perceived job insecurity, could reasonably be expected to be weak.

The present study has some limitations that should be acknowledged. First, a convenience sample was adopted and, although it was quite heterogeneous in relation to geographic area, gender, age, job position and type of organization, it could not be considered as representative of the Italian population or of any organizational context characterized by specific features of perceived job insecurity.

A second limitation was the fact that data were derived from self-report questionnaires, thus raising concerns about common method bias and social desirability. We nevertheless tried to lessen the influence of these biases by highlighting both the anonymity of responses and the voluntary nature of the survey. Even if the use of instruments with high reliability standards and demonstrated validity offsets these limitations to some extent (42), future research should try to integrate different measurement approaches, including other-reported and objective data.

A further limitation was the cross-sectional design of the study, which prevented us from drawing inferences about causal relationship between variables. We theorized that perceived job insecurity leads to a decrease in subjective well-being but the inverse path could also be true and would be worth conducting an appropriate test. A longitudinal research is also necessary to fill this gap and to reach a more definitive conclusion as regards causality.

Because of the potentially dangerous consequences linked to job insecurity, future studies will have to examine the specific contribution of factors that may moderate the job-insecurity-negative-outcome relation. These factors could be found both at the individual level (e.g., personality traits), at the organizational level (e.g., organizational trust, organizational support) and at the job market level (e.g., unemployment rate). Additionally, at the organizational level, other undesirable outcome variables could be assessed, such as counterproductive behavior at work, which might become widespread as a consequence of temporary or insecure job positions (e.g., 43).

The possibility of identifying individual difference variables that could reduce the impact of job insecurity on individual and organizational outcomes would be of great benefit both from the theoretical point of view and also for practical purposes (2). Because of the current economic conditions, insecurity – unfortunately – has become a component of the everyday job experience of millions of people around the world. Although the present research was conducted with a theoretical rather than applied aim in mind, we feel that attention should be paid to locomotion in the promotion of training experience that would allow employees to develop a more active, future-oriented and intrinsically motivated approach to their job, and all this could be seen as going in the direction of a pronounced locomotion orientation. As we stated before, locomotors seems more likely to be optimistic and self-confident, to have more positive attitudes toward change, to adopt more effective problem-solving strategies and to be more willing to accept new challenges. That is, locomotors may be more able to look at a condition of perceived job insecurity as a chance and not only as a danger, thus mitigating the negative consequences of job insecurity on subjective well-being.

References

- 1) Sverke M, Hellgren J, Näswall K. No security: A meta-analysis and review of job insecurity and its consequences. *J Occup Health Psychol* 2002; 7: 242-264.
- 2) De Witte H. Job insecurity: Review of the international literature on definitions, prevalence, antecedents and consequences. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology* 2005; 31: 1-6.
- 3) Bosnam J, Buitendach JH, Laba K. Job insecurity, burnout and organizational commitment among employees of a financial institution in Guateng. *Journal of Industrial Psychology* 2005; 31: 32-40.
- 4) Bosnam J, Rothmann S, Buitendach JH. Job insecurity, burnout and work engagement: the impact of positive and negative affectivity. *Journal of Industrial Psychology* 2005; 31: 48-56.
- 5) Silla I, De Cuyper N, Gracia FJ, Peiró JM, De Witte H. Job insecurity and well-being: moderation by Employability. *Journal Happiness Studies*, 2009; 10: 739-751.
- 6) Kinnunen U, Feldt T, Mauno S. Job insecurity and self-esteem: evidence from cross-lagged relations in a 1-year longitudinal sample. *Pers Individ Dif*, 2003; 35: 617-632.
- 7) Ashford SJ, Lee C, Bobko P. Content, causes, and consequences of job insecurity: A theory-based measure and substantive test. *Acad Manage J*, 1989; 32: 803-829.
- 8) Chirumbolo A, Areni A. The influence of job insecurity on job performance and absenteeism: the moderating effect of work attitudes. *Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 2005; 31: 65-71.
- 9) Sverke M, Hellgren J, Näswall K. Job Insecurity. A Literature Review (Report 1). Stockholm, SE: National Institute For Working Life; 2006.
- 10) Kruglanski AW, Thompson EP, Higgins ET, Atash MN, Pierro A, Shah JY, Spiegel S. To "Do the Right Thing" or "Just Do It": Locomotion and Assessment as Distinct Self-Regulatory Imperatives. *J Pers Soc Psychol* 2000; 79: 793-815.
- 11) Goldberg D. Manual of the General Health Questionnaire. Windsor, UK: NFER Publishing; 1978.
- 12) Näswall K, Sverke M, Hellgren J. The moderating role of personality characteristics on the relationship between job insecurity and strain. *Work Stress* 2005; 19: 37-49.
- 13) Vander Elst T, Van den Broeck A, De Cuyper N, De Witte H. On the reciprocal relationship between job insecurity and employee well-being: Mediation by perceived control? *J Occup Organ Psychol* 2014; 87: 671-693.
- 14) Seligman MEP, Csikszentmihalyi M. Positive psychology: An introduction. *Am Psychol* 2000; 55: 5-14.
- 15) Diener E. The Science of subjective well-being. The collected works of Ed Diener. Social Indicators Research Series 37. New York, NY: Springer; 2009.
- 16) Diener E. Subjective well-being. The science of happiness and a proposal for a national index. *Am Psychol* 2000; 55: 34-43.
- 17) Diener E, Oishi S, Lucas RE. Subjective well-being: The science of happiness and life satisfaction. In Snyder CR, Lopez SJ, ed. *The handbook of positive psychology*, 2nd ed. New York, NY: Oxford University Press; 2009: 187-194.
- 18) De Neve KM, Cooper H. The happy personality: a meta-analysis of 137 personality traits and subjective well-being. *Psychol Bull* 1998; 124: 197-229.
- 19) Lucas RE, Diener E, Suh E. Discriminant validity of well-being measures. *J Pers Soc Psychol* 1996; 71: 616-628.
- 20) Diener E, Emmons RA, Larsen RJ, Griffin S. The Satisfaction with Life Scale. *J Pers Assess* 1985; 49: 71-75.
- 21) Watson D, Clark LA, Tellegen A. Development and validation of brief measures of positive and negative affect: The PANAS scales. *J Pers Soc Psychol* 1988; 54: 1063-1070.
- 22) Terracciano A, McCrae RR, Costa PT Jr. Factorial and construct validity of the Italian Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS). *Eur J Psychol Assess* 2003; 19: 131-141.
- 23) Agho AO, Price JL, Mueller CW. Discriminant validity of measures of job satisfaction, positive affectivity and negative affectivity. *J Occup Organ Psychol* 1992; 65: 185-196.
- 24) Kammann NR, Flett R. Affectometer 2: A scale to measure current level of general happiness. *Aust J Psychol* 1983; 35: 259-265.
- 25) Jex SM, Bliese PD, Buzzell S, Primeau J. The impact of self-efficacy on stressor-strain relations: Coping style as an exploratory mechanism. *J Appl Psychol* 2001; 86: 401-409.
- 25) Kruglanski AW, Pierro A, Higgins ET, Capozza D. "On the move" or "Staying put": Locomotion, Need for Closure and Reactions to organizational change. *J Appl Soc Psychol* 2007; 37: 1305-1340.
- 26) Hayes N, Joseph S. Big 5 correlates of three measures of subjective well-being. *Pers Individ Dif* 2003; 34: 723-727.
- 27) Bosnam J, Buitendach JH, Rothmann K. Work locus of control and dispositional optimism as antecedents to job insecurity. *Journal of Industrial Psychology* 2005; 31: 17-23.
- 28) Spector PE. Development of the work locus of control scale. *Journal of Occupational Psychology* 1988; 61: 335-340.
- 29) Scheier MF, Carver CS. Optimism, coping and health: Assessment and implication of generalized outcome expectancies. *Health Psychol* 1985; 4: 219-247.
- 30) Pierro A, Kruglanski AW, Higgins ET. Progress Takes Work: Effects of the Locomotion Dimension on job involvement, effort investment, and task performance in organization. *J Appl Soc Psychol* 2006; 36: 1723-1743.
- 31) Pierro A, Leder S, Mannetti L, Higgins ET, Kruglanski AW, Aiello A. Regulatory mode effects on counterfactual thinking and regret. *J Exp Soc Psychol* 2008; 44: 321-329.
- 32) Pierro A, Kruglanski AW. Regulatory mode and regret proverb endorsement. Unpublished raw data; 2010.
- 33) Pierro A, Kruglanski AW, Higgins ET. Regulatory mode and the joys of doing: Effects of "locomotion" and "assessment" on intrinsic task-motivation. *Eur J Pers* 2006; 20: 355-375.
- 34) Pierro A, Pica G, Mauro R, Kruglanski AW, Higgins ET. How regulatory modes work together: Locomotion-assessment complementarity in work performance. *TPM Test Psychom Methodol Appl Psychol* 2012; 19: 247-262.
- 36) Bobbio A, Manganelli AM, Filippini V. La resistenza al cambiamento. Validità della versione italiana della scala di Oreg (2003) [Resistance to change. Validity of the Italian version of Oreg's (2003) scale]. *Ricerche di Psicologia* 2008; 4: 7-30.
- 37) Hong RY, Tan MS, Chang WC. Locomotion and assessment: Self-regulation and subjective well-being. *Pers Individ Dif* 2004; 37: 325-332.
- 38) De Witte H. 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: Bouwen R, De Witte K, De Witte H, Taillieu T, ed. *Van groep naar gemeenschap*. Liber Amicorum 2000; 325-350.
- 39) Di Fabio A, Palazzeschi L. The Satisfaction With Life Scale (SWLS): Un contributo alla validazione italiana con lavoratori adulti [The Satisfaction With Life Scale (SWLS): A contribution to the Italian validation with adult workers]. *Counseling, Giornale Italiano di Ricerca e Applicazioni* 2012; 5: 207-215.
- 40) Hayes AF. Introduction to mediation, moderation, and conditional process analysis: A regression based approach. New York, NY: The Guilford Press; 2013
- 41) Schreurs B, Van Emmerik IJH, Notelaers G, De Witte H. Job insecurity and employee health: The buffering potential of job control and job self-efficacy. *Work Stress* 2010; 24: 56-72.
- 42) Spector PE. Method variance as an artifact in self-reported affect and perceptions at work: Myth or significant problem? *J Appl Psychol* 1987; 72: 438-443.
- 43) Spector PE, Coulter ML, Stockwell HG, Matz MW. Perceived violence climate: A new construct and its relationship to workplace physical violence and verbal aggression, and their potential consequences. *Work Stress* 2007; 21: 117-130.

Correspondence: Andrea Bobbio, University of Padova, Department of Philosophy, Sociology, Education and Applied Psychology, Via Venezia n. 8, 35131 Padova PD, Italy; Tel. +390498276657; Fax: +390498276600; E-mail: andrea.bobbio@unipd.it