

A Dispositional Approach to Employability: Development of a Measure and Test of Implications
for Employee Reactions to Organisational Change

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Abstract

This study develops and validates a dispositional measure of employability (DME). Dispositional employability was defined as a constellation of individual differences that predispose individuals to (pro)active adaptability specific to work and careers. A dispositional approach to employability represents an alternative conceptualisation to those previously found in the literature. Three independent studies were conducted to establish construct validity. Using exploratory factor analysis (Study 1) and confirmatory factor analysis (Study 2), a 25-item DME instrument was confirmed. Study 2 supported the hypothesized second-order latent multidimensional factor structure of the DME. Study 3 confirmed the stability of the DME and provided support for its construct validity by longitudinally showing that dispositional employability was significantly related to employees' positive emotions and affective commitment related to organisational changes. It was shown that these effects were above and beyond those found for tolerance for ambiguity, work locus of control, self-esteem, and optimism. Implications for future organisational research and practice are discussed.

Keywords: employability; adaptability at work; proactivity; scale development; dispositions; validation; construct validity; multidimensional constructs

A Dispositional Approach to Employability: Development of a Measure and Test of Implications for Employee Reactions to Organisational Change

The last decade has seen increased attention to examining the dispositional predictors of a variety of individual and organisational criteria. Some of the most common dispositions investigated include the big five dimensions of personality and core self-evaluations. This research has shown that the big five are significantly associated with transactional and transformational leadership (Bono & Judge, 2004), job performance (Thoresen, Bradley, Bliese, & Thoresen, 2004), and career satisfaction (Seibert & Kraimer, 2001). Core self-evaluations, which include measures of self-esteem, self-efficacy, locus of control, and neuroticism, are significantly related to perceptions of the work environment, job satisfaction, life satisfaction, task motivation, and performance (e.g., Erez & Judge, 2001). While much has been learned from the study of dispositions, there still is a need to examine the dispositional source of how employees adapt to changes in their work and career environments. Therefore, the primary goal of this study is to develop and validate the scores of a dispositional measure of employability (DME), and then to investigate its relationship with employees' reactions to organisational change.

Fugate (2006) defines dispositional employability as “a constellation of individual differences that predispose employees to (pro)actively adapt to their work and career environments. Employability facilitates the identification and realisation of job and career opportunities both within and between organisations. Conceived this way, employability is a disposition that captures individual characteristics that foster adaptive behaviours and positive employment outcomes” (p. 20) (see also Fugate, Kinicki, & Ashforth, 2004). There are at least

two key reasons for investigating employability as a disposition. First, today's turbulent work environments make a dispositional approach to understanding how employees adapt to changes in their work environments and careers more relevant. Specifically, the frequency and intensity of change inherent in the workplace is symptomatic of high levels of uncertainty--employers and employees are confronted with ever-changing and often unknown demands. In response, organisations have modified processes, structures, and practices to be more malleable. Mischel (1977) classifies such work environments as *weak* situations because they are in constant flux. Mischel notes also that individual dispositions are more likely to come to the fore and significantly influence behaviours and performance in weak situations. It thus makes sense to develop a dispositional perspective (and measure) of employees' adaptability toward their work environments and careers.

Second, the term *employability* has been invoked in diverse literatures: labour economics (e.g., Hasluck, 2001), candidate attractiveness during interviews (e.g., Hazer & Jacobson, 2003), public policy and employment (e.g., Kossek, Huber, & Lerner, 2003), competencies (e.g., C.M. Van Der Heijden & B.I.J.M. Van Der Heijden, 2006), self-perceptions (Rothwell & Arnold, 2007), and welfare policy (e.g., Bowen, Desimone, & McKay, 1995). These perspectives are sometimes categorised into "demand side" and "supply side," wherein the former addresses context factors or those outside of the individual and the latter addresses individual attributes (e.g., Evans, Nathan, & Simmonds, 1999). Both approaches have been criticised for a lack of precision and clarity regarding definition and application, which has led some scholars to characterise employability research and policy as "fuzzy" or "hollowed out" (cf. McQuaid & Lindsay, 2005). In turn, employability scholars have called for greater fidelity in both the theory and application of employability. The definition of dispositional employability used in this paper

answers this call and provides a more precise individual-based (i.e., supply side) definition. It is also important to note that the working definition used in this paper is qualitatively different and broader than most supply-side definitions and has greater promise for fulfilling the interactive or integrative qualities called for in recent research (e.g., McQuaid & Lindsay, 2005). For example, a large proportion of previous supply side research conceptualises employability in terms of person-job fit, such as getting disabled or disadvantaged persons (back) into the workforce (e.g., Sander, Caroselli, High, Becker, Nesse, & Scheibel, 2002), or candidate attractiveness determined by skill and experience job requirements (e.g., Wright & Multon, 1995). Employability literature utilising a person-job fit perspective implies or assumes that the necessary knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSAs) for a given job are *known and static*. This assumption appears too narrow and unrepresentative of today's turbulent employment landscape.

This study pursues two key objectives. First, an initial validation of a dispositional measure of employability (DME) is provided. Second, the longitudinal effects of employability on employee reactions to organisational change are tested. The effects of employability also are differentiated from those of other dispositional constructs that potentially influence employees' reactions to change. Fugate's (2006) dispositional approach to employability provides the theoretical foundation for this new construct (see also Fugate et al., 2004). From this conceptual base a measurement instrument is developed and validated. The intention is to create a practical instrument, broad enough to capture the conceptual essence of the construct, yet discrete enough to be practical to both academics and practitioners (cf. Rothwell & Arnold, 2007). The following section discusses the conceptual foundation of the dispositional employability construct.

The Dispositional Employability Construct

Conceptual Foundation of Dispositional Employability

Fugate et al. (2004) describe employability “as a psycho-social construct that embodies individual characteristics that foster adaptive cognition, behaviour, and affect, and enhance the individual-work interface” (p. 15). Employability is conceived as psycho-social in that it encompasses individual characteristics that bridge the individual-environment gap. As such, employability extends beyond required KSAs and represents a broad, latent, higher-order trait that facilitates proactive adaptability. This disposition also overcomes conceptual limitations found in prior research that studied employee adaptability to organisational change. Both researchers and practitioners have long acknowledged the importance of employee’s abilities to respond to changing workplace demands, in order to *fit* and survive (e.g., Bretz & Judge, 1994). This line of research and practice posits a reactive employee orientation—employees respond after the situational changes occur or are known. More recently, however, researchers acknowledge the importance of employee initiative and proactivity (e.g., Frese & Fay, 2001; Siebert, Kraimer, & Crant, 2001) in understanding employee behaviour. Consistent with this trend, the disposition of employability is conceptualised as encompassing *both reactive and proactive personal characteristics*. This means that in addition to the ability to reactively adapt to known demands, employable individuals tend to have a *perpetual readiness for change*. That is, they tend to prepare in advance of specific or known threats or likely changes (cf. Aspinwall & Taylor, 1997) rather than waiting for a specific change or demand to occur. As such, dispositional employability extends beyond traditional notions of adaptability in that it explicitly represents a proactive orientation to adaptability and is specific to the work domain. Accordingly, employable individuals not only engage in their jobs and larger careers in order to meet the demands of the environment, but they also proactively create and realise opportunities. This person-centred and psycho-social conceptualisation is grounded in active adaptation

(Ashford & Taylor, 1990) and proactivity at work (for a review, see Crant 2000).

Ashford and Taylor (1990) present several prerequisites for adaptability at work: individual differences that foster active adaptability (e.g., optimism); adaptive schemas or a cognitive component; and the ability to learn and change to meet demands. Consistent with this proposition, Fugate et al. (2004) state that “employable people, by definition, possess a collection of individual attributes necessary for effective adaptation... (and their) career identities cognitively cohere these elements while providing energy and direction to their influence” (p. 20). Dispositional employability also facilitates the identification of opportunities and the personal learning and change necessary to be successful. Beyond active adaptation, dispositional employability also facilitates a *proactive* orientation toward adaptability. Individuals with high levels of dispositional employability tend to pursue their occupational interests in a proactive fashion. They “actively engage the situation, learning and asserting whatever influence is possible to change the situation to fit their own needs and desires; at the same time, they alter their own cognitions and behaviours to optimise the situation” (Fugate et al., 2004, p. 17). Research has shown that proactivity positively influences job performance (e.g., Crant, 1995) and job satisfaction (e.g., Seibert, Kraimer, &, 2001). Proactively engaging one’s work environment is thought to enhance adaptability at work as it increases perceptions of control (cf. Aspinwall & Taylor, 1997; Crant, 2000). Let us now consider the multidimensional structure of employability.

Multidimensional Structure of Dispositional Employability

Dispositional employability is conceptualised as a latent multidimensional construct, “a higher order abstraction underlying its dimensions” (Law, Wong, & Mobley, 1998, 742). As such, dispositional employability is reflected in its dimensions and represents the conceptual

(and empirical) space common to its component dimensions as it relates to active adaptability at work and manifests in openness to changes at work, work and career resilience, work and career proactivity, career motivation, and work identity (these dimensions are described in detail below). Framed this way, employability is conceptually more abstract and has meaning and influence in the work and career domains above and beyond that of any particular dimension. That said, it is also important to note that although each dimension is independent and has unique qualities, they are redundant in respect to implications for proactive adaptability at work. Accordingly, dispositional employability is a higher, second-order factor that represents commonalities between its independent latent dimensions (cf. Law et al., 1998) (see Figure 1). Dispositional employability is thus a more parsimonious representation of proactive adaptability related to work and careers and is consistent with others that support the utility and efficiency of appropriate aggregates and multidimensional forms (e.g., Judge, Erez, Bono, & Thoresen, 2003). The next section delves into this assertion while discussing the component dimensions that comprise dispositional employability.

Dimensions of Dispositional Employability

While many personal characteristics potentially influence the propensity to identify and realise career opportunities, five dimensions deemed critical and representative of the active and adaptable nature of dispositional employability were chosen: openness to changes at work, work and career resilience, work and career proactivity, career motivation, and work identity. These dimensions were identified from extensive literature reviews of applied psychology, careers, management, vocational counseling, and personality. To be selected, each dimension needed to connote an active orientation, be supported by previous research related to adaptability, and be amenable to the context of work and careers. Moreover, the choice of dimensions closely aligns

with those articulated by Fugate (2006) which was a refinement and extension of his earlier work (Fugate et al., 2004).¹

Openness to changes at work. Openness to change is fundamental to dispositional employability. Openness to change and new experiences supports continuous learning and enables one to identify and realise career opportunities, thereby enhancing one's personal adaptability. Open individuals tend to exhibit flexibility when confronted with the challenges inherent in uncertain situations (cf. Digman, 1990), such that openness fosters favourable individual attitudes toward change events at work (Miller, Johnson, & Grau, 1994). Open people are also likely to perceive change as a challenge rather than a threat and be receptive to new technologies and processes (e.g., McCartt & Rohrbaugh, 1995). Therefore, people who are open to new experiences and change are adaptable to dynamic work requirements, making them ultimately more employable.

Work and career resilience. Cognitive adaptation theory contends that resilient individuals have positive self-assessments and optimistic views of life facets (Aspinwall & Taylor, 1992). People with positive self-evaluations are likely to attribute career successes to personal ability and effort, whereas they are not likely to personalise reasons for career failures or missteps (cf. Brockner & Chen, 1996). Resilient individuals are also optimistic (Judge et al., 1999) and have positive expectations about future events and show confidence in their ability to handle objective and affective challenges (cf. Peterson, 2000). Thus, workers who possess career optimism are likely to perceive numerous opportunities in the workplace, to view career changes as challenges and opportunities to learn, and to persist in the pursuit of desired outcomes and goals (Carver & Scheier, 1994). As such, work and career resilience is a part of an individual's work identity and is reflective of their dispositional employability.

Work and career proactivity. Individuals with high levels of dispositional employability often proactively acquire information about the environment, for example, information that one's current employer is considering downsizing. Gathering information related to one's career interests (e.g., an individual job or employer) can serve as feedback and is key to deciphering which efforts are effectively adaptive. Work and career proactivity is also similar to proactive coping. Importantly, however, proactive coping occurs on a molar level—specific challenges or stressors are not necessarily known or expected—preparation is thus done on a rather general level. Therefore, employable individuals seek information of varying specificity that is relevant to their personal job and career interests. In so doing, work and career proactivity facilitates identification and realisation of occupational opportunities.

Career motivation. Career motivation builds on the concepts of motivation control (Kanfer & Heggestad, 1997) and learning goal orientation (Dweck & Leggett, 1988). Kanfer and Heggestad argued that by setting goals, workers with high motivation control are more motivated at work, persist during periods of boredom or frustration, and sustain effort in the face of challenges. Similarly, a learning orientation at work manifests in planning for one's future, pursuing learning and training opportunities (Cron, Slocum, Vandewalle, & Fu, 2005), and a willingness to change to meet situational demands (Ames & Archer, 1988). As such, career motivation is a critical determinant of continuous learning and dispositional employability.

Work identity. Work identity is one's self-definition in the career context. As such, it provides a strong cognitive and affective foundation for dispositional employability. People who define themselves as employable enact behaviours consistent with this self-view (Ashforth & Fugate, 2001), which also influences personal goals or aspirations. Career identities direct, regulate, and sustain behaviour. Furthermore, the absence of well-prescribed career tracks in

today's environment requires individuals to manage their often boundaryless careers. Career identities help compensate by replacing institutionalised career structures with individualised psychological structures. As such, career identities provide motivation—direction and purpose—to career-related endeavors and support employability (Fugate et al., 2004).

Now that the conceptual basis, multidimensional structure, and component dimensions of dispositional employability have been explained, it is important to add clarity to its nomological network. To this end, other proactive constructs found in the literature are contrasted with dispositional employability, after which, details related to its operationalisation and validation are provided.

Dispositional Employability and Other Proactive Constructs and Notions of Employability

Recent research includes several concepts with implications for proactive adaptability at work, such as proactive personality (Seibert et al., 2001), personal initiative (Frese & Fay, 2001), and proactive behaviours (for a review see Crant, 2000). Despite clear similarities, dispositional employability differs in important ways (for an extended discussion see also Fugate et al., 2004). Notably, personal initiative (Frese & Fay, 2001) and proactive adaptation (Pulakos, Arad, Donovan, & Plamondon, 2000) *describe behaviours*. In contrast, employability is a dispositional trait, and while it is highly likely that employability is a precursor or predictor of initiative and adaptive behaviours it does not describe actual behaviours. The same contrast is relevant between dispositional employability and career adaptability (e.g., Ebberwein, Krieshok, Ulven, & Prosser, 2004) and competency-based notions of employability (e.g., Van Der Heijde & Van Der Heijden, 2006). The later two perspectives describe *what* people do (i.e., behaviours) to effectively establish fit between themselves and their careers, such as person-situation fit and skill-employer strategies fit, respectively. In contrast, dispositional employability is more akin to

traits that contribute to career adaptability and fosters competency development rather than describing the actual behaviours and competencies themselves. This difference is important as dispositions “follow” people into each and every situation, and thus their influence applies across a potentially broader array of situations, compared to behaviours, knowledge, skills, or competencies which often by definition are situation or task-specific. Related to domain specificity, dispositional employability differs also in that it is anchored to the work and career context, a clear difference from the more general proactive personality. Collectively, these elements distinguish dispositional employability from other related constructs and theoretically support its discriminant validity.

Item Generation and Preliminary Scale Development of the Dispositional Measure of Employability (DME)

Dispositional employability is presented as a multidimensional construct reflected in five latent dimensions (see Figure 1): openness to changes at work, work and career resilience, work and career proactivity, career motivation, and work identity. Each of these latent factors possesses an *a priori*, and unique, set of items as indicators.

Insert Figure 1 about here

Scale development began with a theoretically-based pool of 34 items, based on the conceptual framework described above. When possible, items were derived from existing scales used in associated empirical research (e.g., Ames & Archer, 1988; Ashford & Taylor, 1990; Ashforth, 2001; Aspinwall & Taylor, 1992; Locke, Shaw, Saari, & Latham, 1981; Miller et al., 1994; London, 1983, 1993; Wanberg & Banas, 2000). Some items were modified to reflect more

closely the conceptual intent and richness of dispositional employability, and many were also altered to relate more explicitly to the work and career contexts. Refining or contextualising items in this way enhances their predictive power (cf. Schwab, 1991) and maintains conceptual consistency with the dispositional employability construct.

To establish content validity of the DME, two panels of judges were used to assign potential items to the underlying theoretical dimensions (American Psychological Association, 1985; Kinicki & Latack, 1990). Correct item assignments reveal that items assess the specified content domain while incorrect item assignments suggest the measurement of extraneous content or the measurement of multiple underlying dimensions. First, four management Ph.D. students and one management professor reviewed a list of definitions corresponding to the dimensions of employability (see Appendix). An iterative process was used to refine the definitions and to more accurately capture the conceptual intent of each dimension of dispositional employability. This resulted in the 34 item pool referred to above.

Next, judge analysis was used to substantiate the content validity of the DME (Hinkin, 1995; Kinicki & Latack, 1990). Fifty seven students enrolled in an upper division course on Human Resource Management participated in the judge analysis. The mean age of the students was 21.8 years, 53% were female and 47% male. Participants responded to a survey asking them to assign the 34 randomly ordered items into one or more of the five dimensions underlying employability. Respondents were first given definitions for each of the five dimensions and then asked to study them carefully. Using the definitions provided, they then were instructed to read each item and to determine which of the five categories the statement best represented.

Content validity is shown when judges assign items into the specified *a priori* categories. The percentage of correct responses was calculated for each item. The standard procedure is to

drop items with less than 50 to 60% agreement (cf. Kinicki & Latack, 1990). A conservative cutoff of 60% was used. The reliability of judges' item assignments was determined through a procedure developed by Schriesheim, Kinicki, and Schriesheim (1979). Participants were first randomly assigned to two groups, then the number of times each item was assigned to each dimension was calculated. Lastly, the correlations were calculated between the scores of each group on each of the dimensions. Results revealed that 30 items were correctly assigned into their a-priori facets of employability, and the mean correct assignment rate was 90% and inter-rater reliabilities were .97-.99. Examination of the four deleted items showed that they included ambiguous information involving more than one dimension of employability and were thus omitted from any further analysis. These results provide preliminary support for the content validity for a 30-item dispositional measure of employability (DME). Next, three independent studies were conducted in the process of using a construct-oriented scale construction process to further establish construct validity of the DME.

Study 1: Multidimensional Structure and Content Validity

Study 1 used exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and assessments of internal consistency reliability to empirically examine the factor structure and content validity of the items that emerged from the judge analysis. Results led to the elimination of poorly loading items and provided preliminary evidence regarding the multidimensional factor structure of the facets proposed to manifest dispositional employability.

Sample, Procedure, and Measure

A Web-based survey was sent to 292 employees working for a Web services company. Respondents worked in offices geographically dispersed throughout the United States (i.e., Phoenix, Seattle, and Atlanta). Two hundred and ten employees responded—a 72% response

rate. The sample had the following demographics: 83% male, 54% married, 72% bachelor's degrees or higher, mean age of 34 years, and 8.9 years average tenure in the high technology industry. The 30 items derived from the content validity study were administered to these employees. Respondents were told that: "We are interested in how you feel about your job, your job opportunities, and your career in general. Please indicate to what extent each of the following describes your feelings." Responses were obtained on a five-point Likert-type scale anchored from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

Analyses

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted using principal axis extraction and a promax rotation, as the five dimensions are proposed to be inter-related (Fugate et al., 2004). The eigenvalue greater-than-one test and a scree test (Harman, 1976) were used to determine the number of meaningful factors. The decision rule for judging that an item defined a factor was a loading greater than or equal to .40 with low cross-loadings (Towler & Dipboye, 2003). Tabachnick and Fidell (1996) recommended using the scree test to further discern the appropriate number of factors. They advocate selecting the number of factors at the point which the slope of the line between factors flattens or approaches zero. Coefficient α -reliabilities were used to determine the internal consistency of the items defining a factor.

Results and Discussion

Results revealed six factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0. Three items were dropped because they did not load adequately on any factor and two were dropped due to high cross-loadings. The remaining 25 items were reanalysed and generated a clean six factor solution that collectively accounted for 62% of the variance. Loadings and α -reliabilities are shown in Table 1.

Insert Table 1 about here

Results of the factor analysis suggested six interpretable facets for the DME. Five factors matched the proposed theoretical structure and one was an anomaly--the optimism component of career resilience emerged as a separate factor. Given the conceptual similarity of these factors they were combined into a single resilience factor, as optimism is a characteristic of resiliency. This decision was further supported by the scree test, as the line between factors flattened between the fifth and sixth factors. To explore this possibility, reliability analyses were rerun combining the eight items from the two scales. The α -reliability for the combined scale was .76, higher than either of the individual scales. Moreover, inspection of the statistics indicated that the reliability of this scale would not be improved by deleting any of the individual items. Therefore, these items were collapsed into a single Work and Career Resilience factor as originally intended. The five factors associated with this solution accounted for 57.26% of the variance collectively, and 21.83, 15.17, 8.10, 6.44, and 5.72 percent of the variance, respectively.

All told, results generally support the content validity of the DME and reflect the five proposed dimensions. Next, a confirmatory test was conducted to further validate the instrument.

Study 2: Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Study 2 used confirmatory factor analysis to achieve two goals: 1) to validate the factor structure of the 25 items generated in Study 1, and 2) to test the discriminant validity (i.e., construct independence) of the DME's five underlying dimensions.

Sample and Procedure

A Web-based survey was sent to 321 employees working for a technology services company (helpdesk outsourcing and Web hosting services) company in the southwestern United States. Respondents were located in a large southwestern city. Two hundred employees responded with complete data, comprising a 62% response rate. The sample had the following demographics: 71% male, 62% married, 68% bachelor's degrees or higher, mean age of 33 years, and 7.8 years average tenure in the high technology industry. This sample was used to validate the 25-items instrument generated in Study 1.

Analyses

Bentler's (1995) EQS program was used to analyse the confirmatory models. Models were tested using the elliptical estimation procedure within EQS because it allows parameter estimation for data that are not multivariate normal. Mardia's coefficient revealed that the data violated the assumption of normality. Model fit was assessed with three fit indexes: comparative fit index (CFI; Bentler, 1990); the incremental fit index (IFI; Bollen, 1989); and the root-mean-square of approximation (RMSEA; Browne & Cudeck, 1993). The CFI has advantages over other statistics (e.g., chi-square) due to its resistance to error related to sample size (Bentler, 1990). A CFI value greater than or equal to .90 indicates adequate model fit (Bollen, 1989). The IFI also estimates model fit and demonstrates less sampling variability than the chi-square to degrees of freedom ratio and non-normed indexes (e.g., non-normed fit index; NNFI). IFI values

equal to or greater than .90 indicate adequate model fit (Bollen, 1989). The RMSEA represents adequacy of model fit compared to degrees of freedom, as such, it is an index of model parsimony. Browne and Cudeck (1993) suggested that RMSEA values between .05 and .08 indicate reasonable model fit.

First, a one-factor model was tested to abate concerns of common-method variance and further support the multidimensionality of the employability construct (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). Next, nested model comparisons were done to determine the independence (i.e., discriminant validity) of the five component constructs. Two models are nested if one can be considered a subset or constrained version of the other (Bollen, 1989). Nested models were contrasted using the sequential chi-square difference test (SCDT; James, Mulaik, & Brett, 1982) and the CFI difference (Widaman, 1985). The more parsimonious or constrained model is considered more appropriate when the SCDT is non-significant and the CFI difference is less than .01, whereas, the converse suggests the less constrained model more appropriately represents the sample data.

Results and Discussion

The one-factor model results poorly reproduced the sample data, which supports the proposed multi-dimensionality of the 25 item DME and helps combat concerns that relationships are explained by common-method variance (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). Next, correlations among the five dimensions were examined (see Table 2). All ten of these correlations were significant and thus support the proposition that the five dimensions share common content related to the construct of dispositional employability. The magnitude of the intercorrelations suggests that the items defining the five dimensions may possess excessive overlapping item content (i.e., a lack of discriminant validity among the dimensions). Therefore, to establish

discriminant validity covariance structure analysis was used to examine the theoretical independence of the five component constructs.

 Insert Table 2 about here

The test of construct independence, or discriminant validity, consisted of comparing a baseline measurement model with alternative nested models hypothesizing equality between two of the five dimensions (Prussia & Kinicki, 1996). The baseline measurement model fit the sample data: $\chi^2 (265, N = 200) = 604.20, p < .001$; CFI = .91; IFI = .91; and RMSEA = .08. All parameter estimates were significant. Tests of discriminant validity revealed that equating the various combinations of dimensions significantly decreased model fit relative to the baseline measurement model. These results confirm factor structure found in Study 1 and demonstrate the discriminant validity of the five dimensions proposed to represent latent indicators of dispositional employability. In so doing, Study 2 reinforces Fugate's et al.'s (2004) contention that the latent dimensions share common content related to employability, but yet possess enough uniqueness to render them independent indicators of the construct (see Figure 2).

The baseline measurement model fit the sample data moderately well: $\chi^2 (265, N = 200) = 604.20, p < .001$; CFI = .91; IFI = .91; AIC = 74.19; and RMSEA = .08. All parameter estimates were significant. Tests of discriminant validity revealed that equating the various combinations of dimensions significantly decreased model fit relative to the baseline model. For example, the model career motivation and work and work identity was significantly worse fitting compared to Model 1: SCDT, $\chi^2 = (4, N = 200) = -191.60, p < .001$, and the CFI declined from .91 to .89. These results confirm factor structure found in Study 1 and demonstrate the

discriminant validity of the five dimensions proposed to represent latent indicators of employability. In so doing, Study 2 reinforces Fugate et al.'s (2004) contention that the latent dimensions share common content related to employability, but yet possess enough uniqueness to render them independent indicators of dispositional employability

Insert Figure 2 about here

Study 3—Predictive and Discriminant Validity

This study contributed to the overall assessment of dispositional employability's construct validity by pursuing three goals. The first was to use CFA in order to confirm the factor structure found in Study 2. The second was to examine the DME's predictive validity by longitudinally examining relationships between dispositional employability and two outcomes with important implications for organisational change (Cronbach & Meehl, 1955; Nunnally, 1978). Predictive validity is a key component of a measuring instrument's construct validity, as it illustrates the utility of using an instrument in appropriate contexts (Messick, 1995). This study examined predictive validity by longitudinally testing relationships between dispositional employability and positive emotions related to organisational change and affective commitment to organisational change. These criteria were chosen for four reasons: 1) they are relevant to the conceptual focus or basis of dispositional employability; 2) they are relevant to the context of the study (organisational change); and 3) they all possess adequate conceptual and empirical foundations from which to generate hypotheses regarding their relationship with employability. Although literature exists for each of these outcomes, no research or precedent exists on which to base specific predictions related to dispositional employability. Therefore, hypotheses are based

on logical inferences from existing research. The third goal of Study 3 involved discriminating the effects of the DME on positive emotions and affective commitment related to the changes from those of four other dispositions--tolerance for ambiguity, work locus of control, self-esteem, and optimism.

Hypotheses

Positive emotions related to organisational change. Emotions are responses to information or experience that alter internal cognitive and/or physiological states (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) and are generally categorised and analysed in terms of their positive and negative character (Lazarus, 1991). This distinction provides insight into the affective colour of one's experience. This study investigates only positive emotions and thereby contributes to both the organisational change and positive psychology literatures (e.g., Luthans, 2002). Regarding the former, organisational change research rarely investigates employees' emotional reactions, and when emotions are included they are typically negative. For example, merger and acquisition research involving reductions in force found that negative emotions dominated survivors' reactions (e.g., Fugate et al., 2002). Researchers generally argue that employees' negative emotional reactions result from potential job losses or other perceived threats associated with organisational changes. In contrast, high levels of dispositional employability are expected to mitigate perceptions of loss or threat during organisational change and thereby inform *positive* reactions. In other words, change is not necessarily negative, and it is argued that dispositional employability may be a basis for predicting positive employee reactions. This proposition was investigated directly by examining the relationship between dispositional employability and positive emotions related specifically to actual organisational changes. It is further argued that those with high dispositional employability are more apt to proactively identify and realise

opportunities both within and outside the changed organisation. As such, these employees are likely to perceive favourable (viable and desirable) opportunities due to the changes, and these opportunities may reside within or outside the current employer. The above discussion leads to the following:

Hypothesis 1: Dispositional employability is positively related to positive emotions associated with organisational change.

Affective commitment to organisational change. Commitment to change represents an individual's degree of buy-in or support for change initiatives (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002). This definition is consistent with other research that conceives commitment as the cohesive element between employees and employer objectives during organisational change (Conner, 1992), and other studies that show commitment to be a key ingredient of readiness for change (Armenakis, Harris, & Field, 1999). Commitment to change has implications for important outcomes, such as turnover, performance, attendance, and organisational citizenship behaviours. Hescovitch and Meyer (2002) examined the individual facets of commitment to change-- affective, continuance, and normative--which distinguish between those that "want," "need," and "should" support organisational changes, respectively. The current study focuses on affective commitment to change as it captures one's genuine desire to support organisational changes and embodies more than mere compliance, but rather authentic attention, alignment, and effort related to the changes. Empirical research supports this supposition. It was shown that nurse's affective commitment was positively related to cooperation and championing of change efforts (Hescovitch & Meyer, 2002). Moreover, previous research posits that affective commitment is predicted by employee relationships or exchanges with their employers, such as job security, promotional opportunities, and feelings of competence in their work roles (cf. Ko, Price, &

Mueller, 1997). In the context of this study, it is argued that dispositional employability predicts affective commitment to change in that those with high levels of employability are adaptable and presumably perform better in the context of change, compared to those with low levels of this trait. Because adaptability and performance are both desirable to employers, it is appropriate to presume they are rewarded (overtly or covertly) with additional opportunities which enhance affective commitment. This becomes self-reinforcing in that employable individuals seek, create, and realise opportunities due to changes, which in turn fosters their affective commitment to the changes. These arguments lead to the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 2: Dispositional employability is positively related to affective commitment to organisational change.

Sample and Procedure

A large department within a public services organisation in the southwestern United States served as the setting for this study. The department's top administrator was replaced after 20 years of service. This position was filled by an individual from outside the organisation, and two additional assistant administrator positions were created. This was the start of a larger organisational change program, which included a multitude of structural, procedural, and job changes. Physical work space was moved and redesigned; services provided by the department were redefined, realigned, and personnel moved; and most job processes were examined and modified during the two years following the management changes. These changes were planned in two phases over two years. Study 3 of the current paper examines employee reactions to the first phase of the changes. Time 1 surveys were administered to all department employees when initial changes occurred and included the DME among many other variables, Outcome variables were included in the Time 2 surveys administered to all department employees one year later.

Panel data were obtained by matching employee's identification numbers from Time 1 and Time 2. This resulted in 101 participants who participated in both Time 1 and Time 2 surveys. This number represents an 83% response rate, as 122 employees who participated at Time 1 were also surveyed at Time 2.² Participants represented employees at every level and shift (days, afternoons, and nights) within the department. Employees completed surveys on a voluntary basis during company time and they were assured of their confidentiality and anonymity. The average age was 42, average organisational tenure was ten years, 38% had some college education, 74% were female, and 11% had a bachelor's or graduate degree.

Several factors (e.g., attrition, promotions, retirement, and lateral career moves) affected the ability to match respondents' Time 1 data with the outcome measures at Time 2. Therefore, both *t*-tests and regression analyses (for details see Goodman & Blum, 1996) were conducted to examine the possibility of attrition bias in the results. Results of both were favourable and eliminated concerns of non-random sampling bias and provided greater confidence that attrition did not influence the results of this study.

Measures

Dispositional Employability. The five latent dimensions underlying dispositional employability were measured with the 25-item DME. Respondents were told that "we are interested in how you feel about your job, your job opportunities, and your career in general. Please indicate to what extent each of the following describes you." Responses were obtained on a five-point Likert-type scale anchored from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*).

Positive emotions related to the changes. Four items developed by Folkman and Lazarus (1988) were used as indicators of Negative Emotions. Respondents were asked: "How often in the past month have you experienced the following emotions related to the changes?" (e.g.,

confident, secure, and pleased). Responses ranged from 1 (*hardly ever*) to 5 (*almost always*). To conserve degrees of freedom, these four items were combined to create a single item averaged scale. The α -reliability for this scale was .93.

Affective commitment to the changes. Four items from Herscovitch and Meyer's (2002) scale of affective commitment to organisational change were used to measure this construct. Respondents were asked to "Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each of the following statements, as they relate to the recent changes at work." Examples items were: 1) I believe in the value of the changes, 2) the changes are good strategy for our business, and 3) I think that management is making a mistake by introducing these changes (reverse scored). Responses were obtained on a five-point Likert-type scale anchored from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). A single item averaged scale was created to conserve degrees of freedom. The α -reliability for this scale was .95.

Analysis

Data analysis closely paralleled that conducted in Study 2--confirmatory factor and discriminant validity analyses were conducted. In addition, a latent structural model was fitted to the data in Study 3. This model contained dispositional employability, its five dimensions, and the two latent outcome variables under investigation. Model structural linkages were then assessed, all analyses applied the same fit indices used in Study 2 to determine omnibus goodness of fit and overall model evaluation, and structural path estimates were tested for significance.

Results and Discussion

Correlations are shown in Table 3. The one-factor model poorly reproduced the sample data, and when combined with the longitudinal design, these findings abate concerns of

common-method variance accounting for relationships between the indicators and outcomes of dispositional employability. Additionally, fit statistics indicate that the proposed measurement model adequately reflected the sample data: $\chi^2 (620, N = 101) = 895.10, p < .001$; CFI = .93; IFI = .93; AIC = -344.90; and RMSEA = .07. All parameter estimates were significant ($p < .05$), and tests of discriminant validity showed that the five latent dimensions of dispositional employability were independent. These results replicate those found in Study 2 and further corroborate the content and discriminant validity of the 25-item DME instrument.

Insert Table 3 about here

Results supported the proposed structural model containing relationships between dispositional employability and the two criterion constructs: $\chi^2 (427, N = 101) = 585.35, p < .001$; CFI = .95; IFI = .95; AIC = -268.65; and RMSEA = .06. The CFI and IFI surpassed the .90 criterion and the RMSEA suggested reasonable error in model approximation. Further, all model paths yielded significant parameter estimates (see Figure 3). Together, these results support Hypotheses 1 and 2 and the predictive validity of the dispositional measure of employability. More generally, these results provide strong support for the construct validity of the 25-item DME and underscore the need for future research regarding dispositional employability and its impact on other models and theories of employee behaviour.

Insert Figure 3 about here

Structural relationships shown in Figure 3 reveal that employees with high dispositional employability report more positive emotions related to the organisational changes over time. This is a refreshing and valuable extension of research that shows negative employee emotions as serious detrimental side effects or outcomes of organisational change (e.g., Fugate et al., 2002). This is insightful and practical, as managers may focus on what to promote rather than what to avoid. In particular, findings show that an important work and career anchored disposition is associated with reactions to change. Historically, as well as currently, selection and placement practices often include candidate dispositions as focal criteria. These results are instructive in that employers may be well served to include the DME as a measure of employee work and career adaptability, which would be of particular benefit for positions with high levels of inherent uncertainty and/or change. Moreover, such an optimistic approach may augment existing approaches to managing resistance to change and change objectives, and at the same time is consistent with the push in positive psychology to take the “anti-pathology” approach to experiences at work.

Similarly, this study demonstrates that dispositional employability is related to affective commitment to change, which is an important organisation-focused attitude. This is especially valuable as other research showed that attitudes can be major obstacles during times of change (e.g., Judge et al., 1999). Meyer and Allen’s (1997) review identified organisational processes and employee dispositions as critical predictors of affective commitment to change. Therefore, employers can enhance employees’ affective commitment to change by creating fair organisational change procedures and encouraging adaptable employee behaviour. For instance, employers may involve employees in change planning and implementation processes to foster procedural justice, while they may recognise and reward employees for changing behaviours and

championing change initiatives. Both of these activities may enhance affective commitment to changes as they foster the active and adaptive potential inherent in dispositional employability. Those with high dispositional employability are more likely to engage the change processes and to exhibit adaptive behaviours, which in turn develops affective commitment to changes.

Discriminant Validity

While the previous analysis established the intra-dimensional discriminant validity of the DME, it did not address whether the DME is appreciably different from other measures of similar phenomena. We thus used multiple regression analysis to determine if the DME predicted positive emotions and affective commitment related to the changes above and beyond four well-studied dispositions with implications for employees' reactions to change: tolerance for ambiguity, work locus of control, self-esteem, and optimism. All of these are widely viewed as general, stable, individual difference characteristics. Discriminant validity for the DME is shown if it accounts for significant criterion variance beyond that explained by these other dispositions. Given the purpose of the discriminant validity test in the context of the larger paper, the description of the method, analyses, results, and discussion is abbreviated.

We used the same sample and data collected in Study 3 to measure all variables: DME and the criterion were discussed in the previous method section. The 25 DME items were averaged for these analyses ($\alpha = .88$). Tolerance for ambiguity was measured with eight items used by Judge et al., (1999) ($\alpha = .73$), work locus of control with eight items from Spector (1988) ($\alpha = .78$), self-esteem with seven items from Brockner (1988) ($\alpha = .72$), and optimism five items found in Ashford (1988) ($\alpha = .80$). The 25 employability items were collapsed into an average score for these analyses ($\alpha = .88$). Positive emotions and affective commitment to changes, the

two dependent variables, were measured with an average scale score. Coefficient alpha reliabilities were .92 and .95, respectively.

All dispositional variables were regressed on positive emotions by entering them one at a time, and no a priori predictions could be made for a particular order of entry (Field, 2000). Table 4 shows that only dispositional employability significantly predicted positive emotions $F(1, 99) = 21.59, p < .001$. The same variables were then regressed on affective commitment, and again only dispositional employability was a significant predictor $F(1, 99) = 8.61, p < .01$ (see Table 5). Neither analysis revealed any significant changes in r-squared with the inclusion of additional predictors. Collectively, these results show that dispositional employability has significant relationships with positive employee reactions to change, and the DME is substantially different from the measures of four widely studied individual differences. These analyses lend support to the benefits of a dispositional approach to employability, a context specific individual difference characteristic.

Insert Tables 4 and 5 about here

General Discussion

Personal adaptability is increasingly important to both employees and employers in today's dynamic work environment. Individual characteristics that predispose people to be more proactively adaptable are clearly beneficial, as individuals now are required to negotiate a never-ending series of workplace changes and transitions. To increase our understanding of these adaptive qualities and the associated benefits, a dispositional measure of employability (DME) was developed based on Fugate's (2006) theoretical foundation (see also Fugate et al., 2004).

Results of three independent studies support the construct validity of a 25-item DME. The evidence for construct validity is especially compelling given the factor structure was replicated in demographically diverse employee samples in very different contexts. The DME thus provides a vehicle for researchers to empirically examine relationships between a new, dispositional perspective of employability and a host of other variables. In so doing, this instrument offers researchers and practitioners a broader and more powerful tool than provided by prior employability instruments (e.g., Daniels, D'Andrea, & Gaughen, 1998; Wright & Multon, 1995). For example, the conceptualisation and operationalisation of employability presented in the current paper overcome the shortcomings of previous approaches to employability that utilise a person-job fit perspective based on KSAs. While KSAs are important, they should be as fluid as the associated strategies for which employees are hired to implement, which in turn, should be as adaptable as the markets in which employing firms operate (cf. C.M. Van Der Heijden & B.I.J.M. Van Der Heijden, 2006). As organisations alter strategies to adapt to changing market demands, the required skills and abilities of employees should correspondingly change.

Furthermore, a dispositional approach to employability provides advantages for both employed and unemployed individuals. The benefits of proactive and adaptable individual qualities for employed individuals have been described throughout the paper, however these qualities also serve people when between jobs or employers. This point is especially salient given that United States Bureau of Labor Statistics reports that the average worker now makes approximately ten job changes between the ages of 18 and 38 (Terkanian, 2006). Employable individuals therefore must adapt not only to *a given employer*, but they must also adapt to *many employers*. This also means that most people will likely experience intermittent job loss and unemployment. As such, we expect dispositional employability to influence job search efforts

and reemployment outcomes. These arguments make a strong case for a dispositional approach to employability, as it embodies a constellation of individual characteristics that are independent of a particular employer and apply across multiple employment situations and time.

Accordingly, the present research also has implications for numerous aspects of organisational research and practice such as employee turnover and coping with change. Dispositional employability is likely to play a role in the process of voluntary turnover. It is important to determine under what conditions it predicts voluntary exit and when it predicts those who stay. For example, people with high dispositional employability may be more prone to remain in a given organisation because they see more opportunities than employees with low levels of this trait. Conversely, dispositional employability may actually cause people to leave, as it provides *movement capital* (e.g., Trevor, 2001) and facilitates the realisation of opportunities outside an individual's current employer. Future research is needed to explore the effects on voluntary turnover.

A dispositional approach to employability also shows promise for influencing employee perceptions of control and coping with organisational change. It is not clear whether or not employability leads employees to actually assert more control in the work context, or if it simply affects individual perceptions. Untangling this relationship is important because organisations benefit when employees feel a sense of control at work (Skinner, 1996). Furthermore, research consistently shows benefits for control coping with organisational change (e.g., Ashford & Taylor, 1988; Fugate et al., 2002). Control coping includes "both actions and cognitive reappraisals that are proactive, take-charge in tone" (Latack, 1986: 378) and closely parallels the proactive foundation of the DME. It is proposed that dispositional employability is related to control coping in a fashion similar to that of coping resources, which are internal and external

factors that individuals draw on to deal with stressful person-situation encounters (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Dispositional employability provides unique contributions above and beyond the internal coping resources commonly investigated (e.g., general self-efficacy). For instance, dispositional employability is more relevant to coping with stressors at work because it is specifically anchored to the work domain. It also acts as a resource with more breadth and depth than other coping resources commonly studied in the literature (e.g., social support and financial resources; for a review see Kinicki, McKee, & Wade, 1996). While this example is speculative and needs to be examined in future research, it starkly differentiates dispositional employability from other notions of employability based on fit, competencies, or candidate attractiveness, as none of these would likely have such implications for employee coping. Such differences highlight broader implications and applications for the dispositional approach to employability and its utility in future organisational research.

Despite these contributions, it is appropriate to note four potential limitations. First, students were used as content judges in scale development. While this is a potential limitation, it is important to note that the only skills required of these judges is that they possess the cognitive ability to perform the task of comparing item content to predetermined, defined categories. As noted by Kacmar and Carlson (1997), college students are an appropriate sample given this rating task. Second, the test of predictive validity only examined two variables in a nomological network of dispositional employability. While the current results support the predictive validity in the context of an organisational change, future research clearly is needed to examine relationships between employability and a broader set of relevant criteria (e.g., career-related outcomes). Third, the operationalisation used here is only an initial attempt. It is conceivable and likely that an expanded operationalisation would more completely capture the conceptual intent

of dispositional employability discussed by Fugate (2006) and Fugate et al. (2004). For example, requisite KSAs are important exclusions from the operationalisation (and conceptualisation) of employability presented in this paper. We encourage future researchers to examine and differentiate the effects of KSAs and dispositional employability on important job and career outcomes (e.g., performance and subjective career success). Fourth, because this paper presents a dispositional perspective of employability future research needs to examine its stability across time and contexts. Doing so will help verify the espoused dispositional nature.

Finally, a dispositional approach to employability has implications for practice (e.g., selection, placement, and management). Employers often champion the merits of adaptable employees (e.g., Harrison, 2004). It therefore would be valuable to determine the validity of using the current measure as one criterion in the selection process. Given results by Pulakos et al. (2000), individuals with high dispositional employability are likely to do well on jobs that require adaptive performance. Additionally, dispositional employability has important implications for placing and managing actively engaged and proactive employees. Historical command and control practices are incongruent not only with today's dynamic work environments, but also with the proactive employees that reside within organisations (Campbell, 2000). It seems reasonable that employees with high levels of dispositional employability are well suited for empowered, supportive, and developmental management practices and situations (e.g., self-managed teams and self-directed work), due to their proactive and active orientations. Employees with high levels of dispositional employability are inclined to take initiative and assume responsibilities and thus should be better aligned with scenarios comprised of delegated processes and practices (cf. Campbell, 2000). Future research needs to examine the veracity of

this proposition to help realise the potential of this new measure and perspective of employability.

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Footnotes

¹ Fugate (2006) and Fugate et al. (2004) provide expanded explications of the individual dimensions of dispositional employability, as well as a more detailed treatment of the conceptual foundations for the larger construct. The explanations of both are shortened in the current paper to conserve space.

² Study 3 is part of a much larger, multifaceted, longitudinal study of the focal organisation. The DME was but one of many variables measured at Time 1. Similarly, the two outcome measures—positive emotions related to the change and affective commitment to the changes—were but two of many variables assessed at Time 2. The 101 participants used for analyses in Study 3 were thus very unlikely to make any links between the IV and DVs, as they were among many variables measured and the respective measures were separated by one year.

Appendix

Dimension of Employability	Definition of Dimension
Work and career resilience	Individuals with work and career resilience possess some combination of the following attributes: are optimistic about their career opportunities and work, feel that they have control over the destiny of their careers, and/or they feel that they are able to make genuinely valuable contributions at work.
Openness to changes at work	Individuals that are open to changes at work are receptive and willing to change, and/or feel that changes are generally positive once they occur.
Work and career proactivity	A proactive career orientation reflects people's tendencies and actions to gain information potentially affecting their jobs and career opportunities, both within and outside their current employer.
Career motivation	Individuals with career motivation tend to make specific career plans and strategies. People in this category are inclined to take control of their own career management and set work/career-related goals.
Work identity	Work identity reflects the degree to which individuals define themselves in terms of a particular organisation, job, profession, or industry. Work identity is characterised by a genuine interest in what one does, how well it is done, and the impressions of others.

Table 1

Exploratory Factor Analysis Results (Study 1)

Items and Factors	α	Dimensions of Employability					
		1	2	3	4	5	6
Factor 1—Openness to Changes at Work	.70						
I feel changes at work generally have positive implications		.41					
I feel that I am generally accepting of changes at work.		.42					
I would consider myself open to changes at work.		.85					
I can handle job and organisational changes effectively.		.80					
I am able to adapt to changing circumstances at work.		.63					
Factor 2—Work and Career Proactivity	.82						
I stay abreast of developments in my company.			.92				
I stay abreast of developments in my industry.			.84				
I stay abreast of developments relating to my type of job.			.60				
Factor 3—Career Motivation	.78						
I have participated in training or schooling that will help me reach my career goals.				.96			

Table 1

Factor Analysis Results (continued).

Items and Factors	α	Employability Facets					
		1	2	3	4	5	6
I have a specific plan for achieving my career goals.				.89			
I have sought job assignments that will help me obtain my career goals.				.41			
Factor 4—Work and Career Resilience	.70						
I am optimistic about my future career opportunities.					.71		
I feel I am a valuable employee at work.					.58		
I have control over my career opportunities.					.76		
My past career experiences have been generally positive.					.43		
I take a positive attitude toward my work.					.49		
Factor 5—Optimism at Work	.75						
In uncertain times at work, I usually expect the best.					.65		
I always look on the bright side of things at work.					.68		

I am a believer that “every cloud has a silver lining” at work.		.74
Factor 6—Work Identity	.68	
I define myself by the work that I do.		.41
I am involved in my work.		.44
It is important to me that others think highly of my job.		.84
It is important to me that I am successful in my job.		.51
The type of work I do is important to me.		.44
It is important to me that I am acknowledged for my successes on the job.		.49

Table 2

Correlations among Latent Dimensions of Employability for Study 2

Construct	1	2	3	4	5
1. Openness to changes at work	.				
2. Work and career resilience	.58	.			
3. Career motivation	.47	.45	.		
4. Work and career proactivity	.37	.27	.57	.	
5. Work identity	.40	.48	.51	.53	.

Note. All correlations are significant at $**p < .01$ or greater.

Table 3

Correlations among the DME and individual difference variables for Study 3

Construct	1	2	3	4	5
1. DME (Employability)	.				
2. Tolerance for ambiguity	.16	.			
3. Optimism	.46**	.27**	.		
4. Work locus of control	.43**	.14	.36**	.	
5. Self-esteem	.31**	.36**	.51**	.53**	.

Note. All correlations are significant at ** $p < .01$ or greater.

Table 4

Simultaneous Regression Results for Positive Emotions Related to the Changes

Variable	R ²	SE R	R ² _{change}	F _{change}	Sig. F _{change}
Step 1	.18	.89	.18	21.59	.00
Employability T1					
Step 2	.20	.89	.02	2.43	.12
Employability T1					
Tolerance for ambiguity T1					
Step 3	.20	.89	.002	.24	.63
Employability T1					
Tolerance for ambiguity T1					
Work locus of control T1					
Step 4	.20	.89	.001	.16	.69
Employability T1					
Tolerance for ambiguity T1					
Work locus of control T1					
Self-esteem T1					
Step 5	.23	.89	.025	3.1	.08
Employability T1					
Tolerance for ambiguity T1					
Work locus of control T1					
Self-esteem T1 and Optimism T1					

Table 5

Simultaneous Regression Results for Affective Commitment to the Changes

Variable	R ²	SE R	R ² _{change}	F _{change}	Sig. F _{change}
Step 1	.08	.82	.08	8.61	.00
Employability T1					
Step 2	.10	.82	.02	2.03	.16
Employability T1					
Tolerance for ambiguity T1					
Step 3	.13	.81	.03	3.45	.07
Employability T1					
Tolerance for ambiguity T1					
Work locus of control T1					
Step 4	.14	.81	.01	.66	.42
Employability T1					
Tolerance for ambiguity T1					
Work locus of control T1					
Self-esteem T1					
Step 5	.14	.81	.01	.50	.48
Employability T1					
Tolerance for ambiguity T1					
Work locus of control T1					
Self-esteem T1 and Optimism T1					

Figure 1. Theoretical structure of dispositional employability.

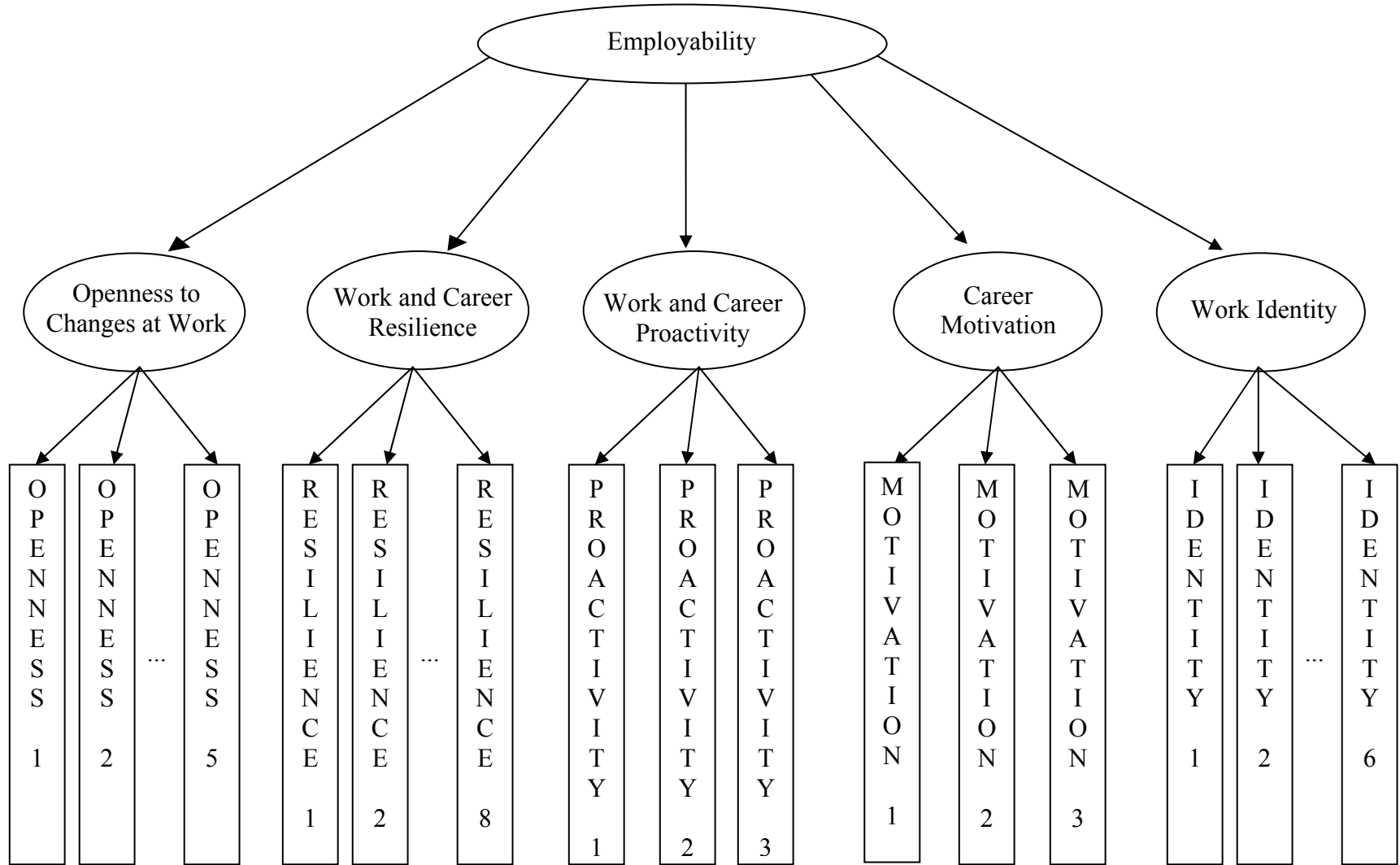
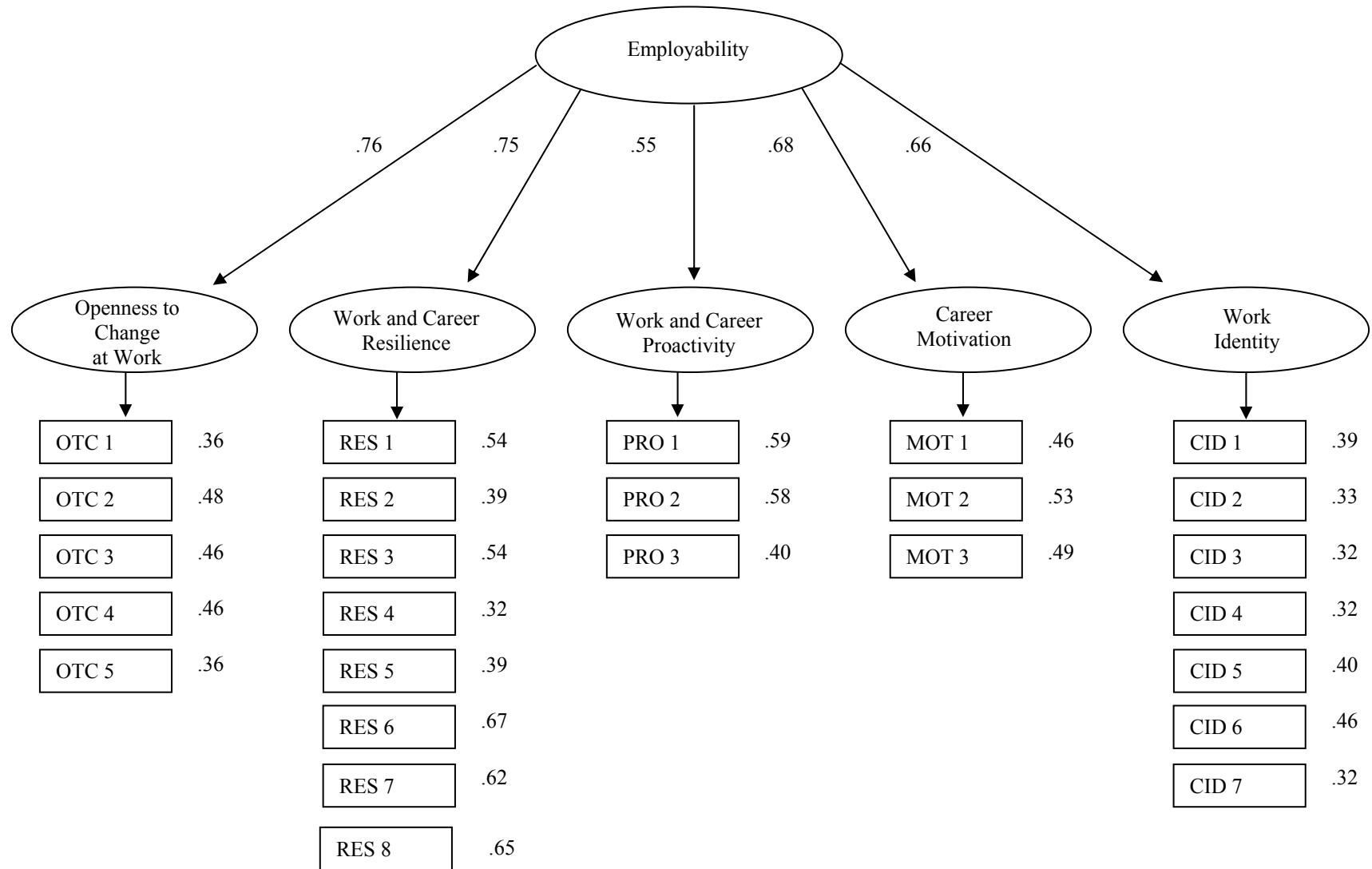
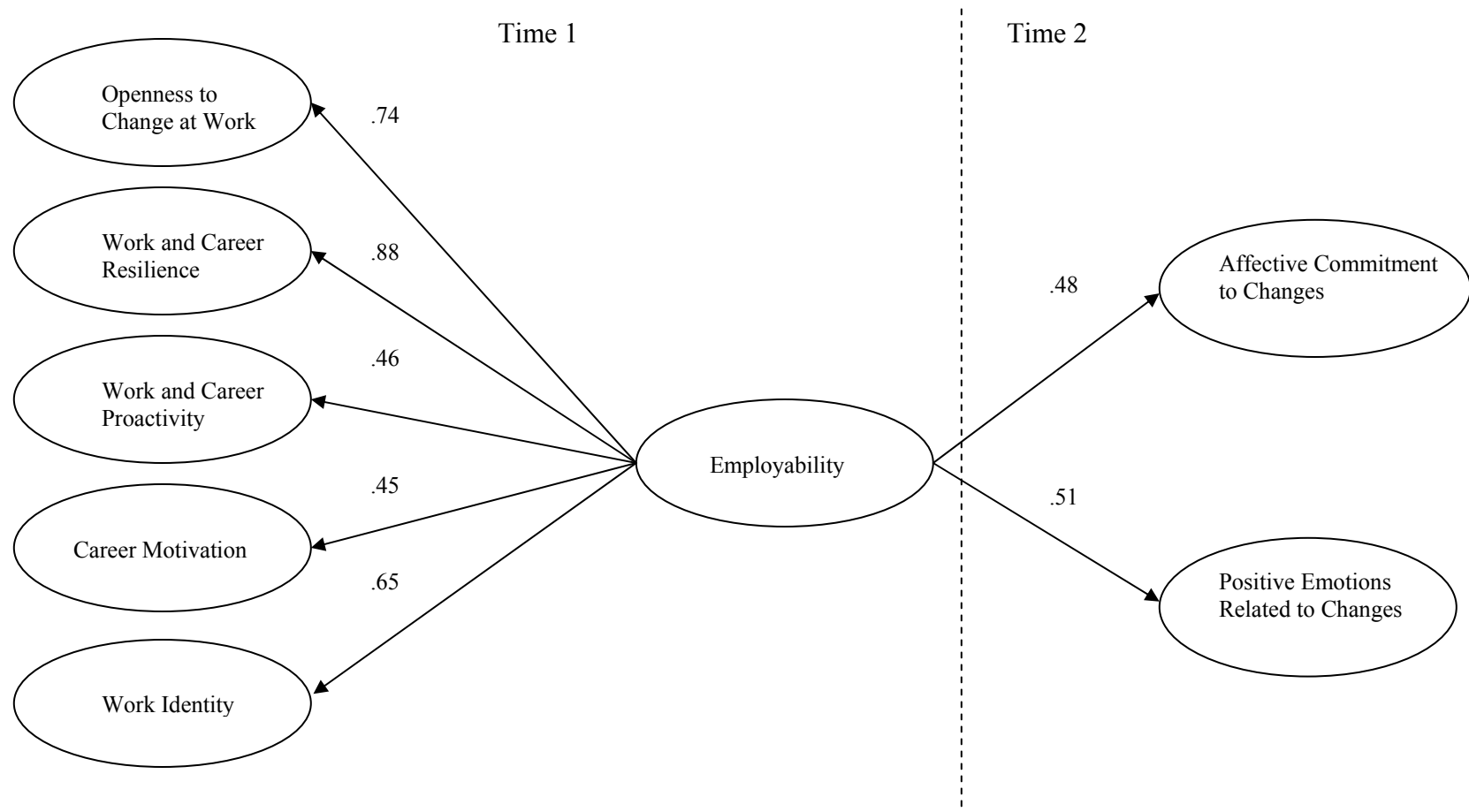


Figure 2. Confirmatory factor analysis results of DME (Study 2).



Note. $n = 200$. All standardised parameter estimates significant at $p < .01$. Error estimates deleted for clarity.

Figure 3. Influence of dispositional employability on employee reactions to organisational change (Study 3).



Note. $n = 101$. All standardized parameter estimates significant at $p < .01$. Manifest indicators for latent constructs are not shown for clarity.