

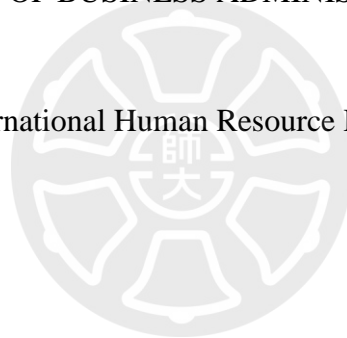
**The Influence of Perceived Job Insecurity on the Performance of MSME
Employees in Belize: A Mediated-Moderated Framework**

by
Gale Quiroz

A Thesis Submitted to the
Graduate Faculty in Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirements for the Degree of

MASTER OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION

Major: International Human Resource Development



Advisor: Chu-Chen Rosa Yeh, Ph.D.

National Taiwan Normal University
Taipei, Taiwan

June 2023

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First off, I am eternally grateful to God. This would not have been possible without Your divine intervention. To my family and friends, I appreciate your continuous support and encouragement throughout this process. Your unwavering support certainly helped me to overcome the challenges along the way.

Also, I would like to convey my gratitude to my advisor, Dr. Chu-Chen Rosa Yeh, for her invaluable guidance and insightful feedback throughout my research and thesis writing process. To Dr. Wei-Wen Vera Chang and Dr. Yi-Ching Angel Liu, I am honored to have had you both serve as members of my defense committee. Your valuable insights, constructive criticisms, and suggestions are much appreciated.

To every individual who assisted in gathering the data, and all the participants in this study, I am sincerely thankful. Special acknowledgment is made to the team at the Belize Trade and Investment Development Service (BELTRAIDE) for graciously accepting to support this research by distributing the survey among its databases.

Lastly, I am grateful to Taiwan and International Cooperation and Development Fund (ICDF) for generously awarding me a full scholarship to pursue advanced studies at the master's level. I am honored to have been chosen as a recipient of this prestigious scholarship, and I am grateful for the opportunities it has afforded me to further my education and career.

ABSTRACT

The global health crisis has led to a surge in unemployment rates in Belize, increasing job insecurity levels among employees, especially those in micro, small, and medium enterprises (MSMEs). The intention of this study was to assess the prevalence of job insecurity among MSME employees in Belize and investigate how their perception of job insecurity impacts their performance. As previous studies have shown conflicting results, competing hypotheses for the job insecurity-performance relationship were proposed. Additionally, the study also sought to establish the mediating role of the challenge and hindrance stressors and the moderating role of employee resilience in the job insecurity-performance relationship. A quantitative study was conducted, and 406 MSME employees in Belize participated. As per the results, job insecurity has a detrimental influence on employee performance through a hindrance effect. Contrary to the hypothesis, the results did not support the idea that resilience moderates the job insecurity-performance relationship and enhances performance. This study enhances our knowledge regarding the effects of job insecurity on employee performance in the context of MSMEs in Belize. As MSMEs are crucial contributors to the Belizean economy, this study offers significant implications for policymakers and practitioners seeking to address the issue of job insecurity and improve the performance of MSME employees. The findings will inform policy and practice in Belize and serve as a foundation for future research in this field.

Keywords: micro, small, and medium enterprises (MSMEs), job insecurity, employee performance, employee resilience, challenge and hindrance stressors

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT.....	I
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	II
LIST OF TABLES.....	IV
LIST OF FIGURES.....	V
CHAPTER I INTRODUCTION.....	1
Background of the Study.....	1
Statement of the Problem.....	4
Research Purpose.....	5
Research Questions.....	6
Significance of the Study.....	6
Definition of Key Terms.....	8
CHAPTER II LITERATURE REVIEW.....	9
Job Insecurity.....	9
Employee Performance.....	12
Employee Resilience.....	13
Job Insecurity and Employee Performance.....	14
The Moderating Role of Employee Resilience.....	16
CHAPTER III METHODOLOGY.....	18
Research Design.....	18
Research Framework.....	18
Research Hypotheses.....	19
Research Procedure.....	20
Sample and Data Collection.....	21

Questionnaire Design	22
Measurements.....	23
Validity and Reliability	29
CHAPTER IV DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS.....	39
Sample Profile Analysis	39
Pearson’s Correlation Analysis	42
Hypothesis Testing.....	45
CHAPTER V CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS.....	51
Conclusions	51
Discussions.....	52
Theoretical Implications.....	54
Practical Implications	55
Limitations and Future Research Suggestions.....	57
Contributions.....	58
REFERENCES.....	59
APPENDIX A: PARTICIPATION INVITATION LETTER.....	74
APPENDIX B: QUESTIONNAIRE.....	75

LIST OF TABLES

Table 3.1 Job Insecurity Scale.....	23
Table 3.2 Employee Performance Scale.....	25
Table 3.3 Challenge and Hindrance Stressors Scale.....	26
Table 3.4 Employee Resilience Scale.....	27
Table 3.5 Cronbach's Alpha of the Pilot Test Measurements.....	30
Table 3.6 Summary of Fit Indexes.....	31
Table 3.7 Factor Loadings for the Five Measurement Models Tested.....	32
Table 3.8 Summary of Goodness of Fit of Measurement Model.....	33
Table 3.9 Convergent and Discriminant Validity of Measurements.....	36
Table 3.10 Cronbach's Alpha of the Main Study Measurements.....	37
Table 4.1 Sample Profile Analysis	41
Table 4.2 Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations of the Main Study Variables.....	42
Table 4.3 Regression Analyses for the Effect of Job Insecurity on Employee Performance.....	46
Table 4.4 Mediating effect of Challenge Stressor.....	47
Table 4.5 Mediating effect of Hindrance Stressor.....	48
Table 4.6 Moderating Effect of Resilience.....	49
Table 4.7 Results of Hypotheses Testing.....	50

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 3.1 Research Framework	19
Figure 3.2 Research Procedure	21
Figure 3.3 CFA Five-Factor Measurement Model.....	34



CHAPTER I INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides an overview of the context and scope of this research. It is comprised of the research's background, problem statement, purpose, research inquiries, study's significance, and definitions of key terms.

Background of the Study

Micro, small, and medium enterprises (MSMEs) are instrumental to economic development and play a critical role in fostering business innovations, generating income, and creating employment opportunities, particularly in developing countries such as Belize. In Belize, 90% of the businesses fall into the category of MSMEs (Statistical Institute of Belize [SIB], 2021) which collectively, account for 70% of national employment and contribute to approximately 50% of the country's GDP (Belize Press Office, 2022). MSMEs undoubtedly contribute to macroeconomic development, but though they are considered “powerful drivers of economic growth” (Women's World Banking, 2019, para. 1), MSMEs are also robust and extremely vulnerable to fluctuations in the economy. Its vulnerability is often due to “short term cash flow constraints and limited access to finance” (Liu, 2018, p. 2), which is considered a “universal challenge for MSMEs” (Liu, 2018, p. 2).

Since 2020, the challenges of MSMEs intensified due to an unprecedented economic impact brought on by the Coronavirus (Covid-19) pandemic. Many businesses experienced challenges including a reduction in demand, disruptions in the supply chain, shortages in raw materials, and cancellation of orders or services, among others (United Nations Conference on Trade and Development [UNCTAD], 2022). As the global health crisis continues to unfold, the ultimate impact on the MSME sector is perhaps not yet determinable. Nevertheless, many surveys have been conducted to assess the current damage to business establishments across the globe. In Belize, a survey conducted by the SIB in November 2020 revealed that business establishments across all participating industry groups experienced revenue losses. As a result, most businesses implemented various cost-saving measures. For instance, 20% of the businesses reported a reduction in staff hours and shifts, while approximately 18% were obliged to lay off staff (SIB, 2021). Nation-wide, employment by formally registered businesses in Belize, declined by approximately 36% between March 2020 and November 2020 (SIB, 2021).

The statistical data is not only representative of the severe financial impact of the pandemic on MSMEs but also highlights how the vulnerability of MSMEs can cause uncertainty in employment and job security for employees. In their research, Lin et al. (2021) discovered “that Covid-19 event novelty and disruption were positively related to employees’ perceived job insecurity” (p. 324). Further studies by Nemteanu et al. (2021) and Vu et al. (2022) have also validated these findings on job insecurity in the Covid-19 context. The results of these studies suggest that uncertainty in the external environment affects MSMEs beyond just the financial aspect. Depending on how employees react to job insecurity, the overall effect on MSMEs may be much greater, especially in cases where it begins to undermine employee performance. Therefore, for the benefit of MSMEs, it was regarded as important to investigate how their employees cope with job insecurity.

The mass layoffs which occurred because of the pandemic have indeed brought more scholarly attention to job insecurity, but the concern about job insecurity existed pre-pandemic and will subsist beyond the pandemic. The rationale behind this is that job insecurity is a perception that is shaped by multiple factors, not only on an environmental level, but also on the organizational, national, and personal levels (Shoss, 2017). Environmental factors such as industrial decline, organizational changes, and economic instabilities in addition to other technological, societal, and political forces have been associated with job insecurity in previous research (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 2010; Jiang et al., 2021; Lin et al., 2021). For instance, as organizations shift to technological and artificial intelligence for improved efficiency in business operations, it may result in declining demand for human labor or in some cases, the outsourcing of labor. On a national level, the scope of protection offered by the labor law also influences employees’ perception of job insecurity (Shoss, 2017). In Belize for example, the law makes provisions for the employment relationship to be terminated without cause, thus contributing to an unstable employment relationship and job insecurity. Furthermore, various individual factors such as personality traits, education level, perceived employability, as well as demographic factors like tenure and socioeconomic status have likewise been observed to influence job insecurity as revealed through prior research (Debus et al., 2013; Låstad et al., 2015; Yang & Zheng, 2015).

In acknowledging that change is inevitable, and in fact, often necessary for continuous growth, one should expect that such changes, in whatever form they may present themselves, will cause uncertainty and thus job insecurity. Therefore, how employees respond to job security and the effect it may have on their performance becomes a matter of paramount

importance for any organization, including MSMEs. Given that job insecurity is subjectively perceived, employees, even in identical situations, may respond to job insecurity to varying degrees (Näswall & De Witte, 2003). Thus, this study incorporates a two-dimensional framework to ascertain the interdependence between job insecurity and the performance of MSME employees in Belize. The framework considers that performance responses to job insecurity might be two-fold, that is, it may either weaken performance or it may strengthen it (Lepine et al., 2005). As such, it is regarded as pertinent for measuring the job insecurity-performance relationship; contrary to conventional theory, the framework presents both positive and negative standpoints, rather than emphasizing only the damaging aftermath of job insecurity.

Built upon the conventional findings pertaining to the various elements impacting job insecurity and its outcomes, this study sought to determine the extent of job insecurity experienced by MSME employees in Belize and how this perception impacts their job performance. In gaining an understanding of how the performance of MSME employees is affected, recommendations for remedial measures can be made. Furthermore, because an organization's overall effectiveness and survival are contingent on the capability of a business entity and its staff to cope with and withstand difficulties (Näswall et al., 2019), resilience is a vital factor in this study. Resilience has been recognized as crucial for organizations to maintain a competitive edge (Bardoel et al., 2014) primarily because it contributes to organizational effectiveness, which ultimately depends on the employees' ability to sustain their performance standards (Jackson et al., 2007). Hence, employee resilience was included in this study as a moderating component to evaluate its effects on the job insecurity-employee performance relationship. Elucidating these relationships can provide insight into how MSMEs can promote resilience and mitigate the adverse consequences of job insecurity on employee performance.

In light of the recent challenges posed by the global health crisis, which have resulted in heightened job insecurity, the understanding obtained from this study may provide essential insights to aid organizations in overcoming future challenges like those caused by environmental factors such as pandemics. While the present study concentrates on the MSME industry in Belize, the research outcomes may have implications for larger organizations, including both public and private entities, especially since job insecurity is not limited to the size or type of an organization. Furthermore, the results of this investigation could be

pertinent to other developing nations in Central America and the Caribbean, particularly those grappling with similar issues.

Statement of the Problem

The Covid-19 pandemic, designated a global health emergency by the World Health Organization (2020), caused an unprecedented economic impact on global economies and has created new challenges for business establishments. The spread of Covid-19 interrupted business operations which resulted in mass furloughs and layoffs worldwide; according to the seventh edition of ILO Monitor, over 114 million people suffered employment loss in 2020 (International Labour Organization [ILO], 2021). In Belize, where the population is merely 324,528, almost 39,000 people lost their jobs due to the pandemic (Statistical Institute of Belize, 2020). Given the high rates of unemployment brought on by the pandemic, it is highly probable that job insecurity among employees has significantly increased (Anderson & Pontusson, 2007) in recent times.

Furthermore, job insecurity may be of even greater concern to the Belizean labor force given the provisions in Belize's labor laws for an employment relationship to be terminated without cause. A contract of employment may be terminated for an indefinite period "either by the employer or by the worker, without assigning reason therefor, by giving to the other the notice" (Belize Labor Act, 2011, p. 34). In Belize, employees are commonly terminated without cause, and with immediate effect, since the law allows the employer to forego the notice period by paying the worker for the wages and benefits equivalent to what would have been due during such notice period (Belize Labor Act, 2011). Other than the wages to compensate for notice periods, which run between two to eight weeks, and severance pay, if applicable, the law in Belize does not offer any other means of protection for the unemployed. Unlike other countries like the United States (U.S.) that have unemployment insurance programs (U.S. Department of Labor, n.d.), Belize's Social Security system does not offer unemployment insurance (ILO, 2022), and therefore, employees in Belize are more prone to feeling stressed or insecure about their job.

As such, there is a need to comprehend to what extent MSME employees feel insecure about their jobs and the effect it has on their performance. Based on the hindrance-

challenge occupational stressor model, employees may respond positively or negatively to stressors like job insecurity (Lepine et al., 2005). For instance, job insecurity may weaken performance when it induces withdrawn behaviors and strained reactions, this is considered the hindrance effect (Piccoli et al., 2019). On the other hand, it may prompt productive behaviors when individuals actively cope with it by working harder to demonstrate their value within a given organization, as a strategy for job preservation, this is known as the challenge effect (Piccoli et al., 2019). These competing predictions were tested on a sample of MSME employees in Belize to determine their performance responses to job insecurity. Considering that job performance is crucial to organizational efficiency, obtaining an in-depth insight into psychological responses to the job insecurity-performance relationship might aid managers to better guide employees to cope with stress reactions. Following this line of thought, resilience is associated with improved employee performance in strenuous or unstable circumstances and is therefore considered a valuable resource in an organization (Avey et al., 2010). Even if no organizational changes occur, life outside of work can sometimes be stressful, and therefore resilience training can still be used by employees to navigate through personal challenges (Bardoel et al., 2014). Accordingly, employee resilience was introduced as a moderator to determine its influence on the job insecurity- employee performance relationship.

Research Purpose

This study aimed to examine the association between job insecurity and performance among employees of MSMEs in Belize. The study was motivated by previous research, such as the work of Anderson and Pontusson (2007), which suggested that job insecurity tends to increase with a growing national unemployment rate. Given the recent surges in the unemployment rate caused by the Covid-19 pandemic, it was probable that the participants in this study harbored concerns regarding the security of their employment. Thus, the researcher sought to capitalize on this situation as a means to investigate the influence of job insecurity on employee performance within MSMEs.

A key aspect of the study was to investigate the potential mediation of challenge and hindrance stressors and the moderating influence of employee resilience on the job insecurity-performance relationship. According to the hindrance and challenge occupational stressor model, resilient employees may interpret job insecurity as a hurdle to be surmounted,

leading to a favorable correlation between job insecurity and performance. In contrast, low-resilience employees may see job insecurity as a hindrance, resulting in an adverse association between job insecurity and performance. The study aimed to explore the importance of resilience within organizations and its potential implications for policies such as employee resilience training.

Overall, the intention was to provide insights that could help MSMEs in Belize better navigate future challenges, particularly amid mounting fears of a potential recession. By drawing on lessons from the economic impacts of the Covid-19 pandemic, MSMEs could increase their chances of surviving another economic hit in the future. As Sahadi (2022) notes, the news headlines about the economy have been increasingly concerning, making it more crucial for MSMEs to be well-equipped to handle future economic challenges.

Research Questions

1. What is the level of job insecurity perceived by the sample of MSME employees in Belize?
2. How does the perceived job insecurity affect the performance of MSME employees in Belize?
3. Do challenge and hindrance stressors play a mediating role in the relationship between job insecurity and the performance of MSME employees in Belize?
4. Does employee resilience moderate the relationship between job insecurity and the performance of MSME employees in Belize?

Significance of the Study

The adage that a "company is only as good as its employees" (Elenko, 1960, p. 13) suggests that the performance of a company is intricately connected to that of its employees (Combs et al., 2006; Estes & Wang, 2008). As a result, any negative or positive impact on an employee's performance can inevitably have a ripple effect on the overall performance of the organization. The findings of this study may offer employers valuable insights into discerning how employees react to perceived job insecurity, allowing them to take corrective managerial action when necessary. Moreover, given the significant contributions of MSMEs to Belize's

economy, the results obtained from this investigation may benefit not only individual MSMEs but also the entire Belizean economy.

Sverke et al. (2019) emphasized the need for more research on employee performance, as it can significantly impact an organization's effectiveness and survival in competitive markets. The current studies on job insecurity and performance outcomes have yielded inconclusive results, with some studies indicating a negative effect on performance (Cheng & Chan, 2008; Gilboa et al., 2008; Jiang & Lavaysse, 2018), while others suggest a positive effect (Feather & Rauter, 2004; König et al., 2010; Shoss et al., 2018). Whereas many studies have explained that job insecurity serves as a job stressor, consequently impairing performance, others have argued that job insecurity serves as a motivational factor for employees to prove their worth, thus improving their performance (Piccoli et al., 2019; Staufenbiel & König, 2010). The inconsistency in the findings could be attributed to the protection provided to employees in case of unemployment in certain national contexts (Berglund, 2015), suggesting that the reactions to job insecurity could vary among different countries. This study aimed to not only address the need for more attention to employee performance but also contribute to the literature on the job insecurity-performance relationship. It is the first study of its kind in Belize, making it a significant contribution to the field.

Furthermore, De Witte et al. (2015) suggested that since job insecurity is often linked to economic circumstances, it cannot be avoided entirely, and as such “it becomes important to find variables that can buffer the consequences of job insecurity” (p. 118). In accordance, scholars advocated for additional investigation into potential moderators that may influence the relationship between job insecurity and its consequences (Lee et al., 2018; Shoss, 2017). Given that employee resilience has been positively associated with improved performance (Kašpárková et al., 2018; Sarkar & Fletcher, 2017), this study seeks to enhance our comprehension of the impact of employee resilience on the job insecurity and performance relationship. By investigating the potential buffering effect of resilience, this study aims to provide insight into how employees can better cope with job insecurity and potentially mitigate its adverse effect on their performance.

Definition of Key Terms

Job Insecurity

As the independent variable, job insecurity will be defined as “a perceived threat to the continuity and stability of employment as it is currently experienced” (Shoss, 2017, p. 4).

Employee Performance

As the dependent variable, employee performance is defined as “scalable actions, behavior, and outcomes that employees engage in or bring about that are linked with and contribute to organizational goals” (Viswesvaran & Ones, 2000, p. 216).

Challenge Stressors

As a mediator in this study, challenge stressors refer to “work-related demands that tend to give rise to the belief that coping will facilitate growth and achievement” (LePine, 2022, p. 224).

Hindrance Stressors

As a mediator in this study, hindrance stressors refer to “work-related demands that tend to engender the belief that achievement is being constrained unnecessarily, which in turn, manifests in strains, as well as negative job attitudes and behaviors” (LePine, 2022, p. 224).

Employee Resilience

As the moderator in this study, employee resilience is defined as “the capacity of employees to utilize resources in order to continually adapt and flourish at work, even when faced with adversity” (Kuntz et al., 2016, p. 460).

Micro, Small, and Medium Enterprises (MSMEs)

MSME definitions vary greatly across countries, with some relying merely on the number of employees as the key indicator to determine whether a business fits into the micro, small or medium category of enterprises. In Belize, enterprises with a staff head count of less than five employees are considered micro, between 5 and 19 are considered small, and between 20 and 50 are considered medium (Belize Trade and Investment Development Service [BELTRAIDE] & United Nations Development Programme [UNDP], 2022).

CHAPTER II LITERATURE REVIEW

Although job insecurity is widely recognized as having a significant impact on employee performance, there are divergent findings regarding its effects. While some studies suggest a positive impact, others indicate a negative one. In accordance with the findings, this study acknowledged the potential consequences of job insecurity on organizations and aimed to investigate how employees' perceptions of job insecurity affect their performance in Belize. It also aimed to investigate the mediating role of challenge and hindrance stressors. Furthermore, this study aimed to examine whether employee resilience can mitigate the detrimental consequences of job insecurity. In this section, each variable is introduced independently, and evidence is presented on the relationship between the independent and dependent variables, as well as the potential role of the mediators and moderators.

Job Insecurity

An overview of existing studies revealed that job insecurity gained scholarly importance following organizational shifts toward lean operations and downsizing in the 1970s and 1980s (De Witte, 1999). Knowledge about the short-term profits of lean operations quickly spread and downsizing rapidly became a widespread management practice in the U.S. and other industrialized nations such as China, Japan, and Israel (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 2010). However, managers later realized that the consequences of their decisions were negative impacts on organizational effectiveness, and subsequently, job insecurity became a critical phenomenon to be investigated. Investigation of the phenomenon has shown that other factors like the progressive economic, political, and organizational changes throughout the years have triggered much concern for employees about the continuity of employment; thus, evoking considerable scholarly interest in job insecurity.

Among the most cited definitions of job insecurity is the “perceived powerlessness to maintain desired continuity in a threatened job situation” (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 1984, p. 438). Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt’s definition pioneered the conceptual understanding of job insecurity and has functioned as a pivot for the further development of the term (Sverke et al., 2019). This study adapts the definition by Shoss (2017), who did a recent overview of job insecurity definitions and subsequently, defined *job insecurity* “as a perceived threat to the

continuity and stability of employment as it is currently experienced” (p. 4). This definition encompasses the fundamental aspects of prior definitions, particularly, the concept of threat, the focus on perception, and the notion that job insecurity may arise when an individual’s job and/or job conditions face vulnerability (Shoss, 2017). Consistent with the definition, there are three important components of job insecurity that will help to guide this research. First, since job insecurity is a subjective experience or perception (De Witte, 1999), individuals in identical situations experience varying degrees of insecurity based on their unique evaluations of the uncertainties within the work environment (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 1984; Klandermans & Van Vuuren, 1999). Second, it reflects a perception of threat that is based on anticipations of potential harm or loss that may occur in the future (Boswell et al., 2015; Folkman & Lazarus, 1985). Therefore, job insecurity is not inherently equivalent to actual employment loss but instead reflects how individuals discern and react to potential loss of employment (De Witte, 1999; Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 1984; Probst, 2003). Third, the threat component of job insecurity refers to the continuity and stability of employment with the current employer (De Witte, 1999; Probst, 2003). These three components distinguish job insecurity from related factors such as education level, and employability, which have been found to alter the degree to which individuals sense and react to job insecurity (De Cuyper et al., 2008).

Job insecurity has often been considered a problematic experience since it has resulted in negative repercussions in both cross-sectional (Jiang & Lavaysse, 2018; Cheng & Chan, 2008; Sverke et al., 2002) and longitudinal (De Witte et al., 2016) studies. Such negative effects have previously been elucidated by differing but interconnecting theories. One such theory is the transactional theory of stress and coping by Lazarus and Folkman (1984) which states that when presented with a new situation, individuals will first go through the appraisal process which involves an assessment of the given situation. If perceived as threatening, then individuals enter the coping phase which represents the changes to the individual's cognitive and behavioral efforts as they attempt to figure out what can be done to counter the threat (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). As it relates to job insecurity, the threat posed is ambiguous in the sense that the origin may be obscure, and thus difficult to determine what can be done to counter the threat, thereby evoking stress reactions (Barling & Kelloway, 1996; Sverke et al., 2002). Furthermore, studies suggest that the perception of job insecurity is not necessarily about job loss, but it can also be linked to other factors which may likewise evoke stress reactions. For example, with potential employment loss, also comes the loss of latent benefits

like social contacts, and status, among others, (Vander Elst et al., 2016), as well as a stable income (Anderson & Pontusson, 2007).

The detrimental consequences of job insecurity could likewise be explained using the Conservation of Resources theory which posits that in situations concerning threats or actual losses of resources, it may trigger stress responses due to one's wish to protect, conserve and acquire such resources (Holmgren et al., 2017). Likewise, job insecurity can lead to stress reactions since the potential loss of employment represents a threat to one's ability to obtain and retain their most valued resources (Hobfoll, 1989). Another theory employed to elucidate the adverse consequences associated with job insecurity is the psychological contract theory (King, 2000; Niesen et al., 2018) which is defined as the "idiosyncratic set of reciprocal expectations held by employees concerning their obligations (i.e., what they will do for the employer) and their entitlements (i.e., what they expect to receive in return)" (McLean Parks et al., 1998, p. 698). As such, once employees fulfill their obligations and perform well, they expect that their employer will reciprocate by ensuring that they remain employed (De Cuyper & De Witte, 2006). However, when at least one party perceives that the other has not fulfilled their part of the implicit agreement, then it gives rise to a perception of a breach in the psychological contract. (Piccoli & De Witte, 2015). Empirical studies have demonstrated a significant association between job insecurity and the breach of the psychological contract (De Cuyper & De Witte, 2006) which in turn, has been linked to strong negative emotional reactions (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994). Following the findings presented above, it is evident that there are negative consequences associated with job insecurity.

Furthermore, job insecurity has consistently been associated with consequences such as reduced job satisfaction (Jiang & Lavaysse, 2018), impaired organizational commitment (De Witte & Näswall, 2003), turnover intention (Cheng & Chan, 2008), and distrust, which may negatively impact the overall organizational effectiveness (Richter & Näswall, 2018). However, empirical studies examining the association between job uncertainty and work performance have produced inconsistent findings. To fully elaborate, employee performance will be discussed in the next section, and thereafter, the empirical findings involving job insecurity and performance will be presented.

Employee Performance

Employee Performance is among the most central concepts in industrial-organizational (IO) psychology (Austin & Villanova, 1992; Schmidt & Hunter, 1992) and is of critical importance in Human Resource Management given its relevance to performance assessment and performance management (Campbell & Wiernik, 2015). Researchers have used the term employee performance interchangeably with alternative names such as job performance (Brayfield & Crockett, 1955; Ramawickrama et al., 2017), work performance (Campbell & Wiernik, 2015; Waldman, 1994), and individual work performance (Koopmans et al., 2012). As demonstrated in the work of Ramawickrama et al. (2017), the definition of performance has been expanded over decades where Porter and Lawler (1974) first regarded it as “a function of individual ability, skills, and effort in a given situation” (Ramawickrama et al., 2017, p. 67). While there is no universal meaning for the term (Mensah, 2015), a widely endorsed definition of *employee performance* is “scalable actions, behavior, and outcomes that employees engage in or bring about that are linked with and contribute to organizational goals” (Viswesvaran & Ones, 2000, p. 216). Job performance is a multi-dimensional construct (Dalal et al., 2012; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994; Ramawickrama et al., 2017), comprising two key dimensions, namely, task performance, and contextual performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Viswesvaran & Ones, 2000).

The dimensions of job performance can be distinguished as follows. The first dimension, task performance can be defined as “the effectiveness with which job incumbents perform activities that contribute to the organization’s technical core” (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997, p. 99). It has also been defined as “the proficiency (i.e., competency) with which one performs central job tasks” (Koopmans et al., 2011, p. 858). Simply put, it refers to the carrying out of specific job tasks within the job description or those otherwise conveyed to the employee (Ramawickrama et al., 2017). The second dimension encompasses the additional work that goes beyond position responsibilities and contributes positively to an organization (Harrison et al., 2006). Contextual performance is sometimes called organizational citizenship behavior (Organ & Ryan, 1995; Ramos-Villagrasa et al., 2019) and is defined as “behavior that contributes to the goals of the organization by contributing to its social and psychological environment” (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002, pp. 67–68). According to Koopmans et al. (2011), it involves “taking on extra tasks, showing initiative, or coaching newcomers on the job” (p. 861). The distinction between the first and second dimensions is

that in the latter, organizational effectiveness is facilitated, but it may not have an immediate effect on employee productiveness (MacKenzie et al., 1991). Previous studies proposed dividing contextual performance into sub-dimensions; for example, Werner (1994) proposed dividing it into (a) behaviors directed towards an organization (e.g., participating in projects or suggesting improvements), and (b) behaviors directed towards people (e.g., helping others when needed). However, not only are the sub-dimensions still considered citizenship behavior, but further meta-analytical studies have shown that its best measured as a uni-dimensional construct (Hoffman & Dilchert, 2012; Hoffman et al., 2007; LePine et al., 2002). Collectively, these two dimensions offer a thorough account of the job performance construct (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993).

Employee Resilience

Resilience has been researched and theorized in various fields including social ecology (Chapin et al., 2010, Biggs et al., 2015), engineering (Sharma et al., 2017; Woods, 2015), and psychology (Yates & Masten, 2004), among others (Galli & Gonzalez, 2014; Reivich et al., 2011), and has been operationally defined across the different disciplines (Hosseini et al., 2016). While a comprehensive discussion of the evolution and multidisciplinary concepts of resilience is beyond the range of this study, overarching concepts of resilience found across contemporary studies are related to surmounting challenges and positive adaptations (Hosseini et al., 2016). In earlier studies, resilience was defined as “the maintenance of positive adjustment under challenging conditions” (Sutcliffe & Vogus, 2003, p. 95). Likewise, in the work of Bonanno (2004), resilience is characterized as the capability to remain stable even when exposed to highly disruptive events, threats, risks, or harm. Such definitions of resilience emphasized positive adaptations under conditions of adversity (Britt et al., 2016). However, later studies indicate that resilience is not necessarily about coping under adverse conditions, but also about adapting to positive changes such as promotions or increased responsibility (Luthans et al., 2006). In support of this view, contemporary research shows that resilience is not only applicable in situations of adversity, but it is also fitting to enhance personal growth, positivity, and adaptability within stable contexts (Kuntz et al., 2017). Also clarified in more recent studies, is the characterization of resilience as a learned behavior, thus indicating that it is a developable skill (Kuntz et al., 2017) as opposed to a personality trait as defined in prior studies (Wagnild

& Young, 1993). To develop this capacity, employees may use challenging situations as learning experiences to become more adaptable and flexible (Avey et al., 2009; Tugade & Fredrickson, 2004). Therefore, resilience is considered a transformative process that empowers individuals to effectively navigate through challenges, to learn from challenging experiences, and to adapt and flourish in their new settings. (Lengnick-Hall et al., 2011; Richardson, 2002).

In accordance with contemporary studies, this research considers *employee resilience* as “the capacity of employees to utilize resources in order to continually adapt and flourish at work, even when faced with adversity” (Kuntz et al., 2016, p. 460). This definition encompasses the three main principles as follows:

1. Employee resilience can be manifested in both stable and adverse conditions.
2. Employee and organizational resilience capabilities that are proactively developed in stable environments (i.e., inherent resilience) will be associated with the resilience levels developed and exhibited under significant adversity (i.e., adaptive resilience).
3. The onus for developing resilience does not rest solely on the employee, as resilience building comprises a reciprocal process involving employees and their organization. (Kuntz et al., 2016, p. 460)

The abovementioned principles suggest the following. First, resilience does not necessitate a situation of crisis to occur for it to be activated; instead, employees may employ resilience in dealing with task-related challenges (Jackson et al., 2007). Additionally, employee resilience can be developed but it requires organizational support. Accordingly, if organizations take proactive measures in building employee resilience during stable conditions, then employees will be more equipped to handle challenges in moments of crisis and uncertainty (Youssef & Luthans, 2007), thus minimizing the impact on employee performance.

Job Insecurity and Employee Performance

As highlighted earlier, the existing findings on the relationship between job insecurity and employee performance have yielded inconsistent results. Multiple studies including two meta-analytic studies conducted by Cheng and Chan (2008) and Gilboa et al. (2008), have demonstrated a negative impact of job insecurity on performance. However, other scholars

argue that job insecurity has a positive effect on performance (Feather & Rauter, 2004; König et al., 2010). In other studies, job insecurity is only found to have a minor positive relationship with different performance dimensions (Probst et al., 2007; Staufenbiel & König, 2010), while a few others declare that there is no significant relationship (Loi et al., 2011; Schreurs et al., 2012). Yet in further research, scholars suggest that the mixed findings between job insecurity and the different dimensions of performance can be explicated in terms of a curvilinear effect (Mäder & Niessen, 2017; Selenko et al., 2013). In fact, even in more recent research, the inconsistent findings continue, with findings indicating no relationship (Aguilar-Quintana et al., 2021) and a negative relationship (Sverke et al., 2019).

Accordingly, given the inconsistent findings regarding the performance reactions to job insecurity, coupled with the subjective nature of job insecurity, the research proposes a set of competing hypotheses. Whereas it is theorized that there is a significant relationship between job insecurity and performance, it is uncertain whether the performance reactions to job insecurity within the Belizean MSME sector will be positive or negative. It is an answer that was sought to be answered through this study without imposing any biases. As such, the following competing hypotheses were proposed.

Hypothesis 1: Job insecurity negatively affects employees' performance.

Hypothesis 2: Job insecurity positively affects employees' performance.

The Challenge-Hindrance Stressor Framework

The psychological factors that underlie the various performance responses to job insecurity can be explained using a two-dimensional work stressor framework constructed by Lepine et al. (2005). As stipulated by the framework, any stressor may result in two basic dimensions, that is, a hindrance stressor and a challenge stressor. A *hindrance stressor* refers to an undesirable job demand that hinders performance while a *challenge stressor* reflects proactive coping and increased performance (Lepine et al., 2005). From the hindrance effect standpoint, a stressor like job insecurity may impede performance due to strain reactions and withdrawal behaviors, but on the flip side, it may activate the challenge effect when employees work harder to justify their value to an organization, as a strategy for preserving their job (Piccoli et al., 2019). This framework is deemed appropriate for the study because

contrary to conventional theories, it offers both positive and negative perspectives on stressors as opposed to focusing only on the harmful effects.

As cited by Yang and Li (2021), the framework was built upon the cognitive interaction theory (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) and the expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964). To elaborate, the work of Lazarus and Folkman (1984) was used to suggest that work stressors, or stimuli that pose demands on persons, are first appraised as either hindrances or challenges. In practical terms, when there is a change in working demand, individuals will first go through the appraisal process in which they individually assess whether the new demand presents a threat to their job, a hindrance, or whether it is achievable, a challenge. Then, according to the expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964), such appraisals lead to differing performance reactions through effects on strains, resulting in negative performance reactions, and motivations, resulting in positive performance reactions (Lepine et al., 2005). Therefore, if the changing demand is deemed achievable, the individual is motivated to work harder to achieve the new goal, thereby increasing performance. On the contrary, if deemed threatening or unattainable, then it evokes stress reactions which effectively inhibits performance. Built upon the two dimensional structure of the challenge and hindrance stressor framework, and the competing nature of the main hypotheses, the challenge and hindrance stressors were introduced as mediators to determine their mediating effects between the job insecurity-performance relationship. Inherently, the subsequent hypotheses were as follows.

Hypothesis 3: Challenge stressors mediate the relationship between job insecurity and employee job performance.

Hypothesis 4: Hindrance stressors mediate the relationship between job insecurity and employee job performance.

The Moderating Role of Employee Resilience

Employee resilience has been identified as having important implications for enhancing competence (Masten, 2001), improving response reactions to stressful situations (Youssef & Luthans, 2007), and increasing performance (Avey et al., 2010; Cooper et al., 2018). Furthermore, it has emerged as a fundamental skill that empowers employees to effectively manage, adjust to, and flourish in a demanding context (Kuntz et al., 2017;

Nguyen et al., 2016; Prayag, 2018). Moreover, because resiliency represents a process of transformation (Näswall et al., 2015) wherein employees persevere and progressively improve (Cooper et al., 2018), it can enhance performance not only during periods of crises but also after. Considering the significance of resilience, it was introduced as the moderator in this research to ascertain its effect on the job insecurity-employee performance relationship.

Despite the discrepancies in the performance outcomes of job insecurity previously, there is a consensus that job insecurity impacts performance. De Witte et al. (2015) state that since job insecurity is often inevitable, it becomes increasingly important to moderate the consequences of job insecurity. However, considering that the causes and outcomes of job insecurity can be diverse, as they depend on national contexts (Sverke et al., 2019), there are also numerous factors that can potentially mitigate the perception of job insecurity. Therefore, rather than attempting to test moderators specific to identified antecedents of job insecurity (e.g., personality traits, type of work contracts, working conditions) (De Witte, 2005), this study introduced employee resilience as its moderator to determine whether it enhances performance regardless of the outcome of Hypothesis 1 and 2. That is, if job insecurity negatively affects performance, it is anticipated that employee resilience will mitigate the impact of job insecurity. This is supported by research suggesting that resilient individuals are better equipped to handle stress and adverse circumstances (Meneghel et al., 2016). Conversely, if job insecurity is found to have a positive effect on performance, then resilience is expected to further enhance the relationship through increased performance since resilience can also be applied to task-related challenges (Jackson et al., 2007). Based on the above discussion, the following hypotheses were proposed.

Hypothesis 5: Employee resilience weakens the negative relationship between job insecurity and employees' performance.

Hypothesis 6: Employee resilience strengthens the positive relationship between job insecurity and employees' performance.

CHAPTER III METHODOLOGY

The following section introduces the components of the research methodology and thus expounds on the research design, framework, hypothesis, procedure, participants in the study, and tools for data collection.

Research Design

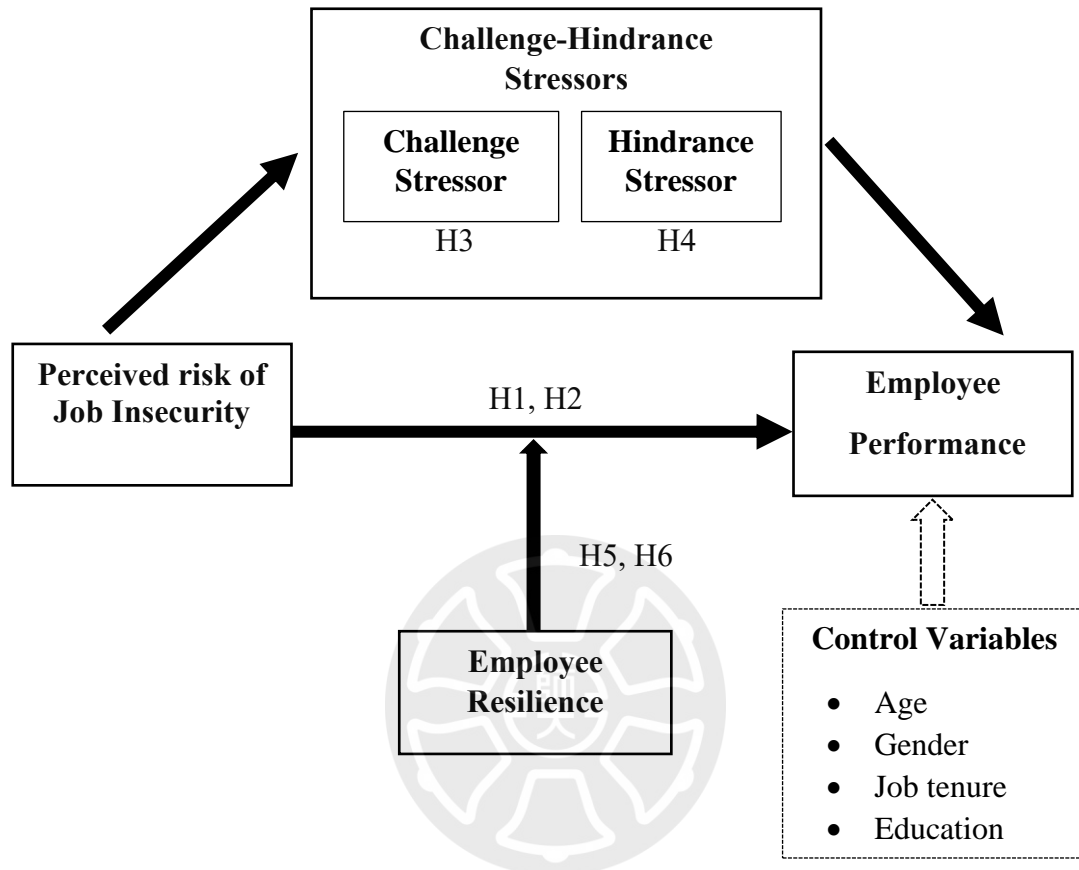
This study was quantitative in nature. It implemented a cross-sectional survey design to gather data on the correlation between job insecurity and performance and employee resilience among MSME employees in Belize. Such data was subsequently utilized to examine the formulated hypotheses.

Research Framework

This research framework was designed to analyze how employees' perception of job insecurity influences their performance. Additionally, it aimed to investigate whether employee psychological resilience moderates the relationship between job insecurity and employee performance. Figure 3.1 illustrates the research structure adopted in this study.

Figure 3.1

Research Framework



Research Hypotheses

In light of the comprehensive literature review, the ensuing hypotheses were developed.

Hypothesis 1: Job insecurity negatively affects employees' performance.

Hypothesis 2: Job insecurity positively affects employees' performance.

Hypothesis 3: Challenge stressors mediate the relationship between job insecurity and employee performance.

Hypothesis 4: Hindrance stressors mediate the relationship between job insecurity and employee performance.

Hypothesis 5: Employee resilience weakens the negative relationship between job insecurity and employees' performance.

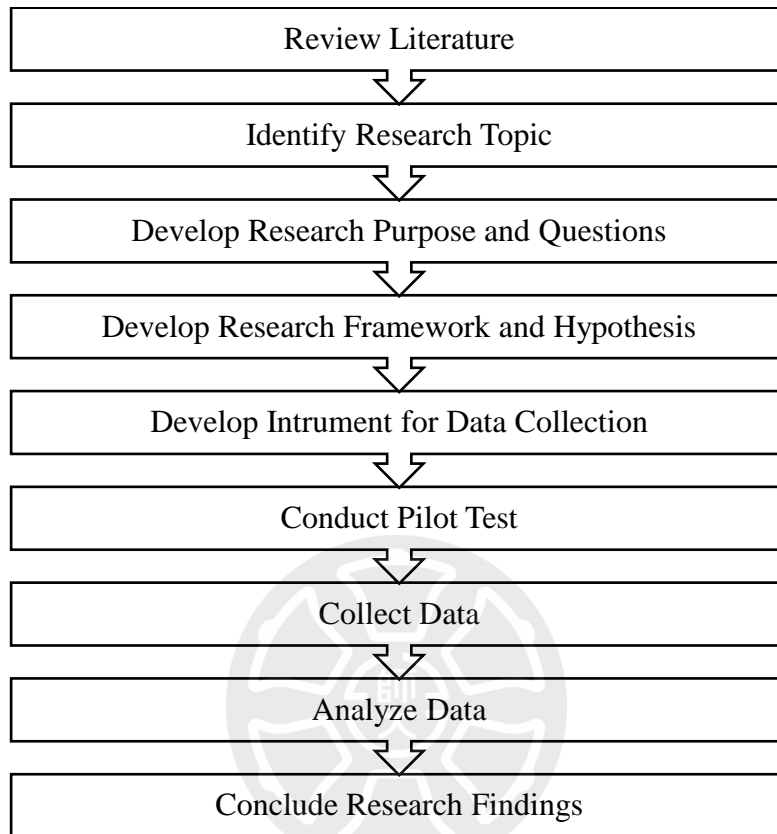
Hypothesis 6: Employee resilience strengthens the positive relationship between job insecurity and employees' performance.

Research Procedure

This section provides a synopsis of the research procedure employed to carry out this study. As noted in figure 3.2, there were a total of eight steps that started from a review of the literature. A preliminary examination of existing research served to develop background knowledge about the area of inquiry and affirmed whether there was sufficient literature to support the proposed research topic. The findings of the literature review were then used to narrow down and finalize the research topic which was the second step of the research process. Thereafter, the research objectives were determined, and specific research questions were established. Next, the research framework and the hypotheses, as well as the instruments for data collection were developed. To ensure the validity and reliability of the data collection instrument, a preliminary pilot test was first conducted. Once verified, the researcher commenced the data collection process for the main study. Finally, the data was analyzed, and the research findings were presented.

Figure 3.2

Research Procedure



Sample and Data Collection

Considering the objective of this study, the sample population were people currently employed at MSMEs in Belize. The aim was to have variation in the study, and therefore MSME employees working across various industries were invited to participate. Samples were collected from people working in different industries with varying age ranges, job tenures, and education levels. The study employed a convenience sampling method to select the participants.

The data collection process involved using a self-administered online survey created using Google Forms. This approach offered several advantages, such as allowing for anonymous responses, employing best-practice security systems, and providing a convenient and cost-effective way to reach a broad sample of MSME employees in Belize. Before

distributing the surveys to participants, a pilot test was conducted to assess the survey's quality and identify any technical, logistical, or other issues that needed to be addressed. Samples were collected from 77 participants in the pilot test, and the measures demonstrated reliability, indicating that no adjustments to the questionnaire were necessary.

For the main study, the researcher sought assistance from The Belize Trade and Investment Development Service (BELTRAIDE) to help recruit participants. Specifically, two of BELTRAIDE's sub-units, the Small Business Development Centre (SBDCBelize) and the Belize Training and Employment Centre (BTEC), assisted with the circulation of the online survey among their respective databases. Furthermore, the researcher sought the assistance of professional networks and personal contacts who work within the MSME sector to fill out the survey and share the survey with their co-workers, friends, and colleagues working within the MSME sector. The survey was also promoted on social media platforms to provide opportunities for the broader Belizean population to participate. The main study collected data over a span of approximately 6 weeks, from February 6, 2023 to March 18, 2023.

No incentives were offered to the participants to avoid biasing the results. Overall, a target sample of 400 was achieved, and the data collection process ensured confidentiality since participants were not asked for personal information that could reveal their identity. The resulting dataset was analyzed using appropriate statistical methods to answer the research questions and accomplish the study's objectives.

Questionnaire Design

The self-administered, online survey consisted of clear instructions, followed by basic demographic questions as well as published scales to measure each variable within the research framework. Those variables are job insecurity, employee performance, and employee resilience. Refer to Appendix A and B for the invitation letter and the questionnaire. The justification for choosing each scale will be elaborated on in the below sections.

Measurements

Job Insecurity

Job insecurity was assessed using the job insecurity scale which was originally formulated by De Witte (2000) in Flemish. The scale was developed to measure the subjective perceptions and concerns regarding the potential of future job loss, along with the associated fear or anxieties linked to the prospect of employment termination (Vander Elst et al., 2013). The global quantitative scale has been evaluated across five nations, including Belgium, The Netherlands, Spain, Sweden, and the United Kingdom in a study conducted by Vander Elst et al. (2013). Their findings provided compelling evidence of the scale's construct validity, reliability, and criterion validity across different language translations in these European nations (Vander Elst et al., 2013). As a result, they recommended the scale as a valuable tool for conducting meaningful cross-country comparisons, effectively addressing language barriers within the study (Vander Elst et al., 2013). This scale has also been used in several studies, with one of the most recent reliability tests reflecting a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.85 (De Witte & Van Hootegem, 2021).

As seen in Table 3.1, the scale consists of four items and respondents rate each item on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). For the purpose of this study, job insecurity was measured by first reversing the scoring of the second item, and subsequently, aggregating the scores of all four items.

Table 3.1

Job Insecurity Scale

Items

1. Chances are, I will soon lose my job.
 2. I am sure I can keep my job (R).
 3. I feel insecure about the future of my job.
 4. I think I might lose my job in the near future.
-

Note. (R) represents reverse-scored questions. Adapted from “The Job Insecurity Scale: A psychometric evaluation across five European countries” by T. Vander Elst, H. De Witte, and N. De Cuyper, 2013 *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 23(3), pp.

Employee Performance

Employee performance was measured using the Individual Work Performance Questionnaire (IWPQ) version 1.0, a tool developed by Koopmans et al. (2014) to evaluate employees' behaviors and actions that are aligned with organizational goals. The reasons for selecting the IWPQ are as follows. Consistent with the employee performance literature, this measure incorporates the key constructs of performance and is therefore considered suitable for the study. Furthermore, this instrument is a concise and universal measure that can be easily applied in any organization (Dåderman et al., 2020; Van Der Vaart, 2021; Widyastuti & Hidayat, 2018). Moreover, the questionnaire enables the measurement of self-assessed work performance (Van Der Vaart, 2021), thus fitting the needs of this study. Additionally, not only are the items heavily supported by the literature review, but Version 1.0 has been validated both by its original authors and by scholars in various countries (Dåderman et al., 2020; Koopmans et al., 2016; Koopmans, Bernaards, Hildebrandt, De Vet et al., 2014; Ramos-Villagrasa et al., 2019; Van Der Vaart, 2021).

As reflected in Table 3.2, Employee performance was measured using a set of 13 items. Among these, five items were dedicated to measuring task performance, while eight items measured contextual performance. Respondents had the option to rate each item on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (*seldom*) to 5 (*always*). To compute the mean score for each subscale of the IWPQ, the item scores were summed and then divided by the total number of items within that specific scale. A recent study reported satisfactory internal consistency indices for both dimensions, with the Cronbach's alpha coefficient for task performance ranging between .74 and .89, and contextual performance ranging between .72 and .91 (Santalla-Banderali & Alvarado, 2022).

Table 3.2

Employee Performance Scale

Items
Task performance (TP) scale
In the past 3 months...
1. I managed to plan my work so that it was done on time.
2. I kept in mind the work result I needed to achieve.
3. I was able to set priorities.
4. I was able to carry out my work efficiently.
5. I managed my time well.
Contextual performance (CP) scale
In the past 3 months...
6. On my own initiative, I started new tasks when my old tasks were completed.
7. I took on challenging tasks when they were available.
8. I worked on keeping my job-related knowledge up-to-date.
9. I worked at keeping my job skills up-to-date.
10. I came up with creative solutions for new problems.
11. I took on extra responsibilities.
12. I continually sought new challenges in my work.
13. I actively participated in meetings and/or consultations.

Note. Adapted from “Construct Validity of the Individual Work Performance Questionnaire” by L. Koopmans, C.M Bernaards, V. H Hildebrandt, S. Van Buuren, H. C. De Vet, A. J. Van der Beek, 2014, *Journal of Occupational and Environmental Medicine* 56(3), pp. 331–337. (<https://doi.org/10.1097/jom.0000000000000113>). Copyright 2014 by the American College of Occupational and Environmental Medicine.

Challenge and Hindrance Stressors

As outlined in Table 3.3, the assessment of challenge and hindrance stressors involved the utilization of six items in total. Among these, three items were specifically tailored to measure challenge stressors, while the remaining three items were dedicated to evaluating hindrance stressors. The measurement scale used in this study was adapted from Charkhabi

(2018), who reported Cronbach's alpha coefficients of 0.87 for challenge stressors and 0.85 for hindrance stressors. Participants rated these items on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). To calculate the mean score, the sum of scores for each item was divided by the total number of items in the scale.

Table 3.3

Challenge and Hindrance Stressor Scale

Items
Challenge stressor scale
Job insecurity provides opportunities to improve my job skills.
Job insecurity makes me focus on my work so that I can perform well.
Job insecurity gives me the feeling that I can achieve something.
Hindrance stressor scale
Job insecurity undermines my concentration on my job.
Job insecurity limits me in performing well.
Job insecurity undermines my work efforts.

Note. Adapted from “Do cognitive appraisals moderate the link between qualitative job insecurity and psychological-behavioral well-being” by M. Charkhabi, 2018, *International Journal of Workplace Health Management*, 11(6), pp. 424–441. (<https://doi.org/10.1108/ijwhm-01-2018-0008>). Copyright 2018 by Emerald Publishing Limited.

Employee Resilience

The scale used to measure employee resilience in this study was developed and validated by Näswall et al. (2019). In line with the resilience literature, this scale was purposefully designed to evaluate resilient behavior exhibited within the work setting instead of measuring resilience as an inherent characteristic or trait. The selection of this employee resilience scale was based on four key considerations. First, subject matter experts, including experts of Small and Medium-sized Enterprises (SMEs), participated in the development stages of the scale (Näswall et al., 2019), thus suggesting that the items will be aligned with

the needs of the current study since its participants were MSME employees. Secondly, the measure was successfully validated in three studies using three independent samples, with all studies supporting its validity and reliability (Näswall et al., 2019). Thirdly, the measure items may generalize across many occupations (Näswall et al., 2019); this characteristic is important to the present study since it takes the variation of samples into account. Finally, the measure has shown adequate validity in other studies (Plimmer et al., 2021; Zhu et al., 2019), and has reflected Cronbach’s alpha of 0.85 and 0.87, respectively.

Table 3.4 presents the composition of the scale, consisting of a total of nine items. Each item was rated on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (*never*) to 5 (*always*). Employee resilience was measured by aggregating the scores of the nine subscales.

Table 3.4

Employee Resilience Scale

Items	
1.	I effectively collaborate with others to handle challenges at work.
2.	I successfully manage a high workload for long periods of time.
3.	I resolve crises competently at work.
4.	I learn from mistakes and improve the way I do my job.
5.	I re-evaluate my performance and continually improve the way I do my work.
6.	I effectively respond to feedback, even criticism.
7.	I seek assistance at work when I need specific resources.
8.	I approach managers when I need their support.
9.	I use change at work as an opportunity for growth.

Note. Adapted from “Employee resilience: development and validation of a measure” by K. Näswall, S. Malinen, J. Kuntz, and M. Hodliffe, 2019, *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 34(5), pp. 353–367. (<https://doi.org/10.1108/jmp-02-2018-0102>). Copyright 2019 by Emerald Publishing Limited.

Demographic Variables

The demographic variables considered encompass age, gender, the highest level of education attained, organizational position, length of job tenure, work location, which was

limited to the district only, industry, and the number of employees within the organization. Each demographic variable was coded as follows.

The first demographic variable, age, was left as an open response as a questionnaire. Based on the responses, it was analyzed by grouping the ages of the respondents into categories and coded as follows: 18 to 24 = 1, 25 to 34 = 2, 35 to 44 = 3, 45 to 54 = 4, 55 to 64 = 5, and 65 and over = 6. Secondly, gender was coded as male = 0 and female = 1. Likewise, the highest level of education was categorized and coded as less than primary school = 1, primary school = 2, high school = 3, trade school = 4, associate's degree = 5, bachelor's degree = 6, master's degree = 7, and Ph.D. = 8. Next, the organizational position was coded as entry-level employee = 1, lower-level management (i.e., supervisors, foremen, and first-line managers) = 2, middle-level management (i.e., line and departmental managers) = 3, and upper-level management (i.e., board of directors and managing directors) = 4. Job tenure was left also left as an open response in the survey, allowing respondents to indicate the number of months that they have worked at the current organization.

In order to track the variation of the sample, the respondents were also asked about their work location, industry, and organization size. For the work location, respondents were only asked to indicate the district; the districts were coded as Belize = 1, Cayo = 2, Corozal = 3, Orange Walk = 4, Stann Creek = 5, and Toledo = 6. After that, the participants were prompted to specify the industry in which they work, and the categories provided were adopted from a recent study done by BELTRAIDE and UNDP (2022). As such, industry was coded as, accommodation, food, and beverage services = 1, activities of households as employers = 2, administrative and support service activities = 3, agriculture, forestry, and fishing = 4, arts, entertainment, and recreation = 5, construction and real estate = 6, education = 7, financial and insurance activities = 8, human health and social work activities = 9, information and communication = 10, manufacturing = 11, professional, scientific, and technical activities = 12, real estate activities = 13, transportation and storage = 14, wholesale and retail trade; auto repair = 15, and other = 16. Finally, for the purpose of determining the organizational size, respondents were presented with a drop-down list and asked to indicate the number of employees at their current organization. The categories provided in the drop-down list were coded as less than 5 employees = 1, 5 to 19 employees = 2, and 20 to 50 = 3, with the said categories implying micro, small, and medium enterprises, respectively.

Control Variables

In previous studies, it appears that there is no consensus regarding the control variables significantly related to employee performance. Age and gender have emerged among the most common control variables in job performance studies (Ang et al., 2007; Che Rose et al., 2010; L. Y. Lee & Sukoco, 2010) although Côté and Miners (2006) state that neither age nor gender, are related to job performance. However, apart from the aforementioned control variables, recent studies have presented statistical evidence linking other factors, such as job tenure and educational level, to performance (Nguyen et al., 2019; Tetteh et al., 2021), though the scholars did not propose a rationale for their effects on performance. Therefore, to enhance the internal validity of this study, age, gender, job tenure, and educational level were controlled to determine whether they have an effect on the performance of the sample.

Validity and Reliability

To ensure the measurement scales used in the questionnaire exhibited robust reliability and validity, a pilot test was undertaken. Then, Cronbach's alpha coefficient for each variable was computed based on the outcomes of the pilot test study. Once the data collection for the main study was completed, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and a Cronbach alpha coefficient test were performed.

Pilot Test

Prior to collecting data for the primary study, a pilot test was conducted to assess the feasibility of this research and to test the efficacy of the research instrument. The data for this small-scale study was amassed using an online survey which was created using Google Forms. A total of 77 samples were collected between January 16, 2023 to January 29, 2023. IBM SPSS Statistics (Version 23) was used to analyze the data.

In order to evaluate the reliability of the measurement scales incorporated in the survey questionnaire, a Cronbach's alpha test using the reliability command in SPSS was conducted. As shown in table 3.5, the α for challenge stressor was 0.86, hindrance stressor

was 0.85, performance was 0.92, resilience was 0.88 and job insecurity was 0.83. Notably, the alpha coefficients for all the variables were above 0.7 (Nunnally,1978) indicating a high internal consistency among the items.

Table 3.5

Cronbach's Alpha of the Pilot Test Measurements

Variables	α
Challenge Stressor	0.86
Hindrance Stressor	0.85
Performance	0.92
Resilience	0.88
Job Insecurity	0.83

Note. N = 77

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

To establish the validity and reliability of all constructs and validate the overall goodness of fit of the measurement model, CFA was performed utilizing JASP 0.17 (Jeffreys's Amazing Statistics Program). Furthermore, for the purpose of evaluating the construct validity and determining the adequacy of model fit to the data, various goodness-of-fit indexes were used. Those indices included the chi-squared test (χ^2), degree of freedom (*df*), chi-squared divided by the degree of freedom (χ^2/df), p-value, comparative fit index (CFI), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), standardized root mean squared residual (SRMR), non-normed fit index (NNFI), and the incremental fit index (IFI).

The chi-squared test was employed to compare the observed results with the expected results and its purpose was to determine whether the differences were by chance or because of a relationship between the variables. When the chi-square value approaches zero, it indicates a minimal disparity between the expected and observed covariance matrices; a p-value of chi-square less than 0.05 indicates a relationship is statistically significant. The ratio of the chi-square statistic to its respective degrees of freedom also serves as a valuable indicator of the adequacy of model fit. According to Hooper et al. (2008), a χ^2/df ratio between 2.0 and 5.0 is acceptable. The CFI tests the model fit by evaluating any disparities between the data and the proposed model while taking into account variations in sample size. CFI values range from 0 to 1 with values of 0.90 or greater indicating a better model fit (Hu

& Bentler, 1999). The RMSEA shows “how well the model, with unknown but optimally chosen parameter estimates would fit the populations covariance matrix” (Hooper et al., 2008, p. 54). A RMSEA below 0.08 shows a good model fit (MacCallum et al., 1996). The SRMR represents the square root of the difference between the residuals of the sample covariance matrix and the expected model. SRMR values fall within the range of zero to one, with values below 0.5 indicating a favorable model fit (Byrne, 2013) though values up to 0.08 are considered acceptable (Hu & Bentler, 1999). The NNFI shows an estimate of the model fit and is particularly suitable for sample sizes exceeding 200 (Hooper et al., 2008). NNFI values above 0.80 signify an acceptable level of model fit (Hooper et al., 2008), however, Bentler and Hu (1999) recommended a threshold greater than 0.95. The IFI adjusts the Normed Fit Index (NFI), taking into account the sample size and degrees of freedom (Bollen's, 1989); NFI values above 0.90 are considered acceptable. When the fitness indices satisfy their respective thresholds, construct validity is realized. Table 3.6 presents the acceptable thresholds for the aforementioned indices.

Table 3.6
Summary of Fit Indexes

Fit Indexes	Threshold	References
χ^2/df	2.0-5.0	(Hooper et al., 2008)
CFI	>.90	(Hu & Bentler, 1999)
RMSEA	< .08	(MacCallum et al., 1996)
SRMR	< .05	(Byrne, 2013; Hu & Bentler, 1999)
NNFI	> .95	(Hooper et al., 2008; Hu & Bentler, 1999)
IFI	> .90	(Hu & Bentler, 1999)

Note. χ^2 = chi-squared, *df* = degree of freedom, CFI = comparative fit index, RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation, SRMR = standardized root mean square, NNFI = non-normed fit index, IFI = incremental fit index.

After establishing acceptable thresholds for the fitness indices to be examined in the research, CFA was conducted to evaluate the fit of various factor models. The factor models were loaded as shown in table 3.7. For the one-factor model, items for each variable were loaded into one factor, while in the two-factor model, job insecurity and resilience items were

loaded into the first factor, with items for the remaining variables loaded into the second factor. In the third-factor model, job insecurity and resilience items were loaded into the first factor, challenge and hindrance stressor items into the second factor, and performance items in the third factor. In the four-factor model challenge and hindrance stressors were loaded together into one factor while the items for the other three variables were loaded independently into different factors. Finally, for the five-factor model, the items for each of the five variables were loaded into separate factors.

Table 3.7

Factor Loadings for the Five Measurement Models Tested

Model	Factors	Variables
One-factor model	Factor 1:	JI, RES, CS, HS, PERF
Two-factor model	Factor 1:	JI, RES
	Factor 2:	CS, HS, PERF
Three-factor model	Factor 1:	JI, RES
	Factor 2:	CS, HS
	Factor 3:	PERF
Four-factor model	Factor 1:	JI
	Factor 2:	RES
	Factor 3:	CS, HS
	Factor 4:	PERF
Five-factor model	Factor 1:	JI
	Factor 2:	RES
	Factor 3:	CS
	Factor 4:	HS
	Factor 5:	PERF

Note. JI = job insecurity, RES = resilience, CS = challenge stressor, HS = hindrance stressor, PERF = performance.

The summary of the goodness fit of the measurement models is displayed in Table 3.8. As noted, the indices for the first three models are all below the threshold and therefore, are not considered acceptable models. Similarly, the four-factor model is not appropriate as

only the $\chi^2/df = 3.50$ and the $NNFI = .85$ meet the recommended threshold. The five-factor model generated the best results where $\chi^2/df = 2.63$, $CFI = 0.91$, $RMSEA = 0.06$, $SRMR = 0.05$, $NNFI = 0.90$, and $IFI = 0.91$. Notably, construct validity was demonstrated for all indices except $SRMR = 0.5$ which should be lower than 0.5. The model plot for the five-factor model can be viewed in Figure 3.3.

Table 3.8

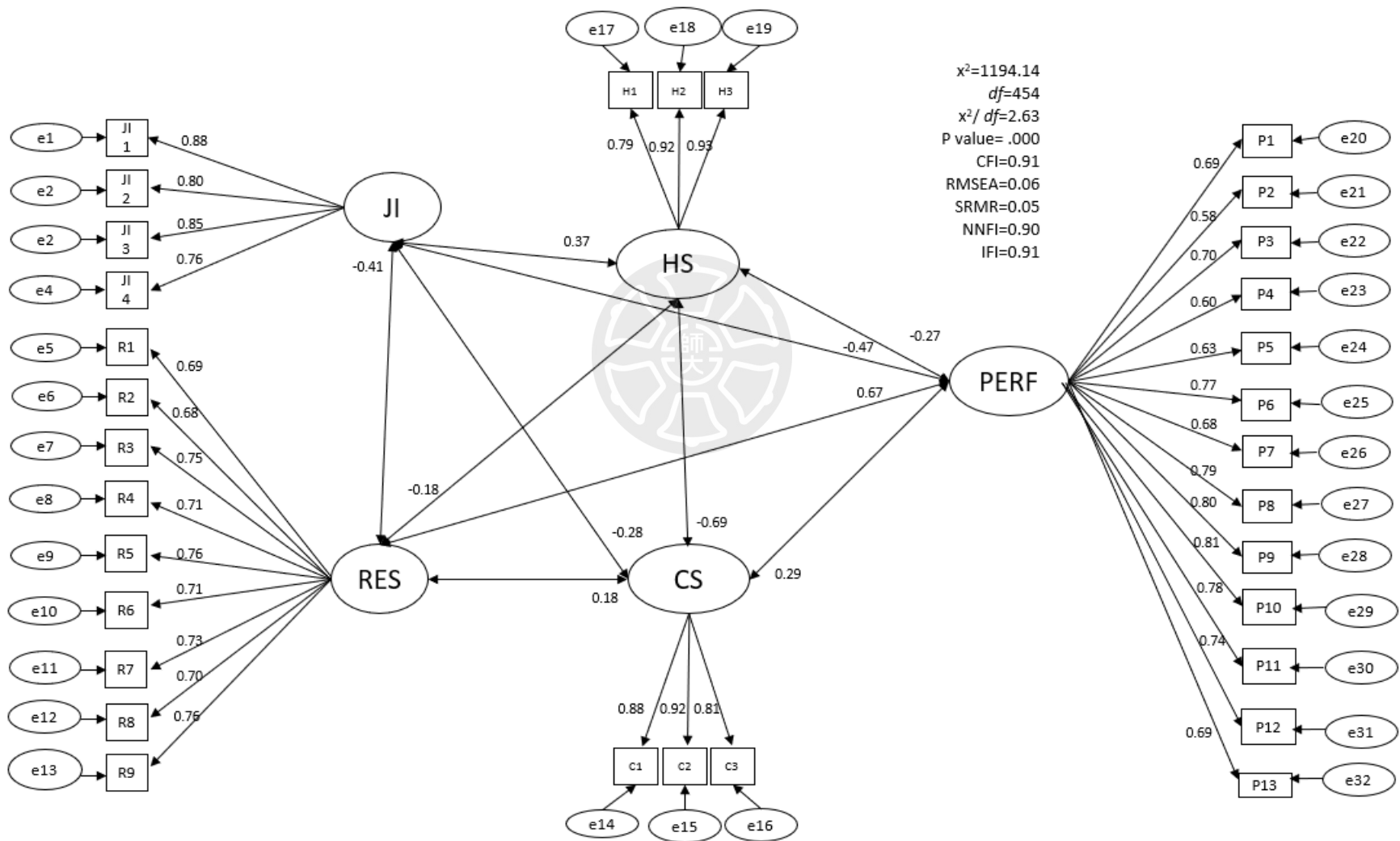
Summary of Goodness of Fit of Competing Measurement Model

Model	χ^2	<i>df</i>	χ^2/df	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR	NNFI	IFI
Threshold			2.0-5.0	>.90	<0.08	<0.05	>.80	>.90
One-factor model	4457.56	464	9.61	0.53	0.15	0.13	0.49	0.53
Two-factor model	3775.18	463	8.15	0.61	0.13	0.12	0.58	0.61
Three-factor model	2439.13	461	5.29	0.77	0.10	0.09	0.75	0.77
Four-factor model	1601.34	458	3.50	0.86	0.08	0.05	0.85	0.86
Five-factor Model	1194.14	454	2.63	0.91	0.06	0.05	0.90	0.91

Note. $N = 406$. *df* = degree of freedom, CFI = comparative fit index, RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation, SRMR = standardized root mean square, NNFI = non-normed fit index, IFI = incremental fit index.

Figure 3.3

CFA Five-Factor Measurement Model of Job Insecurity, Challenge Stressor, Hindrance Stressor, Resilience, and Performance



Convergent and Discriminant Validity

After checking for construct validity, further validity tests including convergent and discriminant validity were conducted. According to Hair et al. (2016), the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) values should be greater than 0.5 while the Composite Reliability (CR) values should be above 0.7 to achieve good convergent validity. The AVE and CR values were calculated by inputting the values of the CFA factors loadings into the Stats Tools Package by Gaskin (2016). As seen in Table 3.9, all AVE values were above 0.5 and all the CR values are greater than 0.9, which are well above the recommended 0.7. The results indicate that convergent validity for all measures was met.

The discriminant validity test, on the other hand, examines whether measurements that in theory should be unrelated are, in fact, unrelated. For discriminant validity to be realized, the squared root of the AVE must be greater than the correlation value (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Therefore, the squared root of the AVE value for each variable was calculated and the results are as follows: job insecurity (0.87), challenge stressor (0.91), hindrance stressor (0.92), resilience (0.78), and performance (0.60). For ease of comparison, these values were placed in parentheses on a diagonal in table 3.9 while the correlation coefficients appear just below the diagonal. Evidently, the squared root of the AVE values was greater than their respective correlation values, and thus, discriminant validity was achieved. While convergent validity and discriminant validity are sub-types of construct validity, they are both an integral part of the construct validation process.

Table 3.9*Convergent and Discriminant Validity of Measurements*

	Mean	S.D	AVE	CR	Job Insecurity	Challenge Stressor	Hindrance Stressor	Resilience	Performance
Job Insecurity	3.13	1.05	.78	.99	(.88)				
Challenge Stressor	2.30	0.98	.91	.97	-.27**	(.95)			
Hindrance Stressor	3.58	0.98	.95	.98	.35**	-.65**	(.97)		
Resilience	3.90	0.70	.54	.91	-.36**	.15**	-.15**	(.73)	
Performance	3.56	0.80	.61	.95	-.42**	.26**	-.24**	.61**	(.78)

Note. S. D = standard deviation. CR = composite reliability. The values on the diagonal in parenthesis are the square root of the average variance extracted (AVE) for the main variables and the values outside the diagonal represent the correlations between the constructs.

Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient Test

A Cronbach's alpha coefficient test was carried out for each of the scales used in the survey to assess the internal consistency or reliability, for each set of the survey items used in the study. Internal consistency or reliability refers to whether the set of survey items consistently measures the same construct. If the value of Cronbach's alpha (α) ranges between 0.70 to 0.95, the measure is said to have good internal consistency (Bland & Altman, 1997; DeVellis & Thorpe, 2021; Nunnally, 1978); values greater than 0.95 may suggest redundancies within the items (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). The Cronbach's alpha coefficient test produced the following results: job insecurity ($\alpha = 0.89$), challenge stressor ($\alpha = 0.90$), hindrance stressor ($\alpha = 0.91$), resilience ($\alpha = 0.92$) and performance ($\alpha = 0.93$). Evidently, all the measures are well above 0.80 but below 0.95, indicating that the measures show great internal consistency and are thus considered reliable. These results are displayed in Table 3.10.

Table 3.10

Cronbach's Alpha of the Main Study Measurements

Variables	α
Job Insecurity	0.89
Challenge Stressor	0.90
Hindrance Stressor	0.91
Resilience	0.91
Performance	0.93

Note. $N = 406$

Common Method Variance

In this study, all the variables were assessed through self-report measures. To assess the potential common method bias, Harman's single factor test was employed. According to Podsakoff et al. (2012), if the total variance explained by the largest un-rotated factor exceeds 50%, it indicates the presence of common method bias. However, the results of the test revealed

that the total variance explained by the largest un-rotated factor was 35.55%. Therefore, the common method bias is not a significant concern in this study, as the variance explained remains below the established threshold.



CHAPTER IV DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

This chapter presents a synopsis of the data analysis along with the findings of the study. The attributes of the sample are first described in the sample profile analysis section below. Thereafter, the details of Pearson's correlation analysis and the hypotheses testing analysis are provided.

Sample Profile Analysis

Data was collected from 449 samples, however, 1 was deleted due to faulty data, and the 42 outliers detected by SPSS were excluded. Therefore, 406 samples were included in the data analysis. The Google Forms platform allowed the researcher to adjust the settings of the survey to ensure that the respondents replied to all questions prior to submission. Therefore, there was no missing data. Furthermore, because the questionnaire included a filter question at the beginning, it helped to ensure that the respondents met the sample criteria. The participants in this study were employees of MSMEs in Belize. Of the 406 participants, 73 (18%, $n = 406$) were employed at micro-enterprises, while 209 (52%, $n = 406$) were employed at small businesses and 124 (31%, $n = 406$) at medium-sized enterprises.

The sample population consisted of 193 (48%, $n = 406$) males and 213 (53%, $n = 406$) females. The ages of the respondents were grouped into categories; there were 35 (9%, $n = 406$) participants between the ages of 18 and 24, 152 (37%, $n = 406$) between the ages of 25 and 34, 124 (31%, $n = 406$) between the ages of 35 and 44, 64 (16%, $n = 406$) between the ages of 45 and 54, 25 (6%, $n = 406$) between the ages of 55 and 64, and 6 (2%, $n = 406$) who were 65 and over. This data shows that the majority of the participants were from the second and third categories (i.e., 25-34 and 35-44) respectively, together accounting for 68% of the participants and perhaps suggesting that most participants were Millennials.

More than 65% of the participants reported having tertiary education, of which the larger majority held associate degrees and bachelor's degrees, respectively. Specifically, there were 6 (2%, $n = 406$) participants who had less than a primary school diploma, 17 (4%, $n = 406$) participants with primary school diplomas, 58 (14%, $n = 406$) participants with high school

diplomas, 49 (12 %, $n = 406$) participants with trade school certificates, 146 (36 %, $n = 406$) participants with an associate's degree, 102 (25 %, $n = 406$) participants with bachelor's degrees, and 28 (7%, $n = 406$) participants with master's degrees and above.

With regards to organizational positions held by the participants, 146 (36%, $n = 406$) participants were entry-level employees, 139 (34%, $n = 406$) participants were in lower-level management, 82 (20 %, $n = 406$) participants were in middle-level management, and 39 (10%, $n = 406$) participants were in upper-level management. There were 35(9%, $n = 406$) participants who reported job tenures of less than 1 year, 239 (59%, $n = 406$) participants with job tenure between 1 to 5 years, 102 (25%, $n = 406$) participants with job tenure between 5 to 10 years, 24 (6%, $n = 406$) participants with job tenure between 10 to 15 years and 6 (6%, $n = 406$) participants with job tenure of more than 15 years.

There were participants from all six districts, although the greater majority were from the Belize District, possibly because it is the most populated district in Belize. A total of 149 (37%, $n = 406$) participants worked at MSMEs in the Belize District, 60 (15%, $n = 406$) participants worked in the Cayo District, 33 (8 %, $n = 406$) participants worked in the Corozal District, 68 (17%, $n = 406$) participants worked in the Orange Walk District, 62 (15%, $n = 406$) participants worked in the Stann Creek District, and 34 (8%, $n = 406$) participants worked in the Toledo District. For ease of reference, the details of the sample analysis have been placed in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1*Sample Profile Analysis*

Variables	Categories	Count	Percentage (%)
Gender	Male	193	48
	Female	213	53
Age	18-24	35	9
	25-34	152	37
	35-44	124	31
	45-54	64	16
	55-64	25	6
	65+	6	2
Education	less than primary school	6	2
	primary school	17	4
	high school	58	14
	trade school	49	12
	associate's degree	146	36
	bachelor's degree	102	25
	master's degree and above	28	7
Organizational Position	entry-level employee	146	36
	lower-level management	139	34
	middle-level management	82	20
	upper-level management	39	10
Job Tenure	less than 1 year	35	9
	1 ≥ 5 years	239	59
	5 ≥ 10 years	102	25
	10 ≥ 15 years	24	6
	More than 15 years	6	2
Work location	Belize	149	37
	Cayo	60	15
	Corozal	33	8
	Orange Walk	68	17
	Stann Creek	62	15
	Toledo	34	8
Organizational Size	micro (less than five employees)	73	18
	small (5-19 employees)	209	52
	medium (20-50 employees)	124	31

Note. N=406.

Pearson's Correlation Analysis

A Pearson's Correlation test was conducted to establish the statistical relationship or association among the variables that formed a part of this study. In addition to the correlation coefficients, the means and standard deviations for each variable can be viewed in Table 4.2. Also included in Table 4.2 are the reliability measures for the primary constructs.

To begin the interpretation of Pearson's Correlation Analysis, the correlations among the control variables along with the primary constructs, including the independent variable, mediators, moderator, and the dependent variable were first observed. As seen in Table 4.2, age has a positive relationship with job tenure ($r = .44, p < 0.01$). In addition, age has a significant correlation with most of the primary constructs though some relationships are positive while others are negative. Specifically, age has a negative significant relationship with job insecurity ($r = -.18, p < 0.01$), and hindrance stressor ($r = -.16, p < 0.01$), while it has a positive relationship with both resilience ($r = .20, p < 0.01$) and performance ($r = .22, p < 0.01$). Likewise, job tenure is significantly correlated with most of the major constructs; it is significantly and negatively correlated with job insecurity ($r = -.24, p < 0.01$), and hindrance stressor ($r = -.14, p < 0.01$) while it is significantly and positively correlated with resilience ($r = .16, p < 0.01$) and performance ($r = .17, p < 0.01$). Job tenure is also positively correlated with education ($r = .14, p < 0.01$). Education is negatively and significantly correlated with the challenge stressor ($r = -.11, p < 0.05$).

Next, the correlations between the independent variable and other variables including the demographics, mediators, moderator, and the dependent variable were analyzed. In terms of demographics, job insecurity was significantly and negatively correlated with age ($r = -.18, p < 0.01$) and job tenure ($r = -.24, p < 0.01$). As the independent variable, job insecurity is significantly correlated with the mediators, moderator, and the dependent variable. That is, job insecurity is negatively and significantly correlated with challenge stressor ($r = -.27, p < 0.01$), resilience ($r = -.36, p < 0.01$), and performance ($r = -.42, p < 0.01$) while it is positively related with hindrance stressor ($r = .35, p < 0.01$).

Then, the correlations between the mediators and the other variables such as the demographics, moderator, and dependent variable were assessed. Challenge stressor was

significantly and negatively correlated with education ($r = -.11, p < 0.01$). In addition, challenge stressor was significantly and negatively correlated with job insecurity ($r = -.27, p < 0.01$) and hindrance stressor ($r = -.65, p < 0.01$) while it was significantly and positively related to resilience ($r = .15, p < 0.01$) and performance ($r = .26, p < 0.01$). Hindrance stressor was significantly and negatively correlated with two control variables, age ($r = -.16, p < 0.01$) and job tenure ($r = -.14, p < 0.01$). Furthermore, hindrance stressor was significantly and positively related to job insecurity ($r = .35, p < 0.01$), while it was significantly and negatively correlated with resilience ($r = -.15, p < 0.01$) and performance ($r = -.24, p < 0.01$).

After that, the correlations among the moderator and other variables like the independent variable, dependent variable, and control variables were evaluated. Resilience reflected a significantly positive relationship with two control variables, namely, age ($r = .20, p < 0.01$), and job tenure ($r = .16, p < 0.01$). Additionally, resilience was significantly and negatively associated with job insecurity ($r = -.36, p < 0.01$), and hindrance stressor ($r = -.15, p < 0.01$), while it was significantly and positively associated with hindrance stressor ($r = .15, p < 0.01$) and performance ($r = .61, p < 0.01$).

Finally, the dependent variable and its correlations with all other variables were examined. Performance reflected a positive correlation with two demographic variables, namely, age ($r = .22, p < 0.01$) and job tenure ($r = .17, p < 0.01$). Performance was also positively correlated with the challenge stressor ($r = .26, p < 0.01$) and resilience ($r = .61, p < 0.01$), while it was negatively correlated with job insecurity ($r = -.42, p < 0.01$) and the hindrance stressor ($r = -.24, p < 0.01$).

Table 4.2*Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations of the Main Study Variables*

	Mean	S.D	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Age	2.78	1.10									
2. Gender	0.52	0.50	-.04								
3. Job tenure	4.17	3.39	.44**	.01							
4. Education	4.80	1.35	.09	.05	.14**						
5. Job Insecurity	3.13	1.05	-.18**	-.02	-.24**	.00	(.89)				
6. Challenge Stressor	2.30	0.98	.09	.05	.01	-.11*	-.27**	(.90)			
7. Hindrance Stressor	3.58	0.98	-.16**	.00	-.14**	.06	.35**	-.65**	(.91)		
8. Resilience	3.90	0.70	.20**	.07	.16**	.05	-.36**	.15**	-.15**	(.91)	
9. Performance	3.56	0.80	.22**	.07	.17**	-.01	-.42**	.26**	-.24**	.61**	(.93)

Note: $N = 406$. Numbers in parentheses represent the reliability of the main variables. Gender is coded as 0 = male, 1 = female.

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Hypothesis Testing

The SPSS statistical software was used to conduct the hypothesis testing. The hierarchical regression command was used to determine the relationship between job insecurity and employee job performance. Then, in order to assess the mediating effects of the challenge and hindrance stressors and the moderating effect of resilience, Hayes PROCESS macro was utilized. These statistical analyses were necessary to verify whether the hypotheses proposed by the researcher were supported or not.

The first two hypotheses were competing hypotheses. Hypothesis 1 presumed that as the independent variable, job insecurity negatively affects employees' job performance while Hypothesis 2 presumed that job insecurity positively affects employees' performance. The hierarchical regression helped to determine the outcome of the predictor variable, after controlling for gender, age, tenure, and education. To do this, employee performance was entered as the dependent variable in the hierarchical regression analysis. The aforementioned control variables were accounted for in Model 1 and were then re-entered in Model 2 along with job insecurity, which was the predictor variable. The results which are presented in Table 4.3 show that job insecurity has a negative effect on performance ($\beta = -0.39, p < .001$). Therefore, Hypothesis 1 is supported, and Hypothesis 2 is inherently not supported.

Table 4.3*Results of Regression Analyses for the Effect of Job Insecurity on Employee Performance*

Variables	Employee Performance	
	Model 1	Model 2
<i>Control variables</i>		
Age	.19***	.15**
Gender	.08	.07
Tenure	.10	.02
Education	-.04	-.02
<i>Main effects</i>		
Job Insecurity		-.39***
R ²	.25	.21
Adj.R ²	.05	.20
F	6.82***	20.60***
Δ R ²	0.06	.14
ΔF	6.82***	70.96***

Note. N = 406.***p* < .01, *** *p* < .001

Hypotheses 3 and 4 posited mediating effects of challenge stressors between job insecurity and employee performance. Hayes PROCESS was used to examine the effects of the mediators; Hayes PROCESS made it easy to generate the results of the statistical analysis simply by inputting the x and y variables and the mediator into the Process Macro window.

Hypothesis 3 proposed that Challenge Stressors mediated the relationship between job insecurity and employee job performance. As reflected in Table 4.4, the total effect of job insecurity on performance is negative ($b = -0.32, p < 0.001$). The direct relationship between job insecurity and challenge stressor is negative ($b = -0.26, p < 0.001$). Additionally, the relationship between job insecurity and performance is negative ($b = -0.27, p < 0.001$), while the relationship between challenge and performance is positive ($b = 0.12, p < 0.001$). The result indicates that the indirect effect of job insecurity on performance through the mediator of challenge stressors is significant as the bootstrap upper and lower limits [-0.06, -0.013] for the confidence intervals do not cross zero ($b = -0.03$). In other words, challenge stressors mediated the indirect relationship between job insecurity and job performance. Therefore, Hypothesis 3 is supported.

Table 4.4*The Mediating Effect of The Challenge Stressor*

Variables	Challenge Stressor		Performance	
<i>Control variables</i>				
Constant		3.29***		3.78***
Age		0.08		0.10
Gender		0.11		0.10
Tenure		-0.02		0.01
Education		-0.08		-.00
<i>Main effects</i>				
Job Insecurity		-0.26***		-0.27***
Challenge Stressor				0.12**
R ²		0.10***		0.23***
F		8.43***		19.33***
JI to CAP to PERF	Effect	Lower limit	Upper limit	Results
Total Effect	-.32***	-.39	-.25	Significant
Indirect Effect	-.03	-.06	-.013	Significant
Direct Effect	-.29***	-.36	-.22	Significant

Note. N = 406.

** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Hypothesis 4 theorized that hindrance stressor mediates the relationship between job insecurity and employee performance. As reflected in Table 4.5 the total effect of job insecurity on performance is negative ($b = -.32, p < .001$). The direct relationship between job insecurity and hindrance stressor is positive ($b = .31, p < .001$), the relationship between job insecurity and performance is negative ($b = -.29, p < .001$) while the relationship between hindrance and performance is negative ($b = -.07, p < .05$). The result indicates that the indirect effect of job insecurity on performance through the mediator of hindrance stressor is significant as the bootstrap upper and lower limits $[-.06, -.001]$ for the confidence intervals do not cross zero ($b = -.03$). In other words, hindrance stressors mediated the indirect relationship between job insecurity and job performance. Therefore, Hypothesis 4 is supported.

Table 4.5*The Mediating Effect of The Hindrance Stressor*

Variables	Hindrance Stressor		Job Performance	
<i>Control variables</i>				
Constant		2.62***		4.38***
Age		-0.08		0.10**
Gender		0.01		0.12
Tenure		-0.01		0.00
Education		0.05		-0.01
<i>Main effects</i>				
Job Insecurity		0.31***		-0.27***
Hindrance Stressor				-0.07
R ²		0.14***		0.21***
F		12.82***		17.84***
JI to HS to PERF	Effect	Lower limit	Upper limit	Results
Total Effect	-.32***	-.39	-.25	Significant
Indirect Effect	-.03	-.06	-.001	Significant
Direct Effect	-.29***	-.37	-.22	Significant

Note. $N = 406$.

** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Hypotheses 5 and 6 each posited the moderating effect of employee resilience on the relationship between job insecurity and employee performance. Like Hypotheses 1 and 2, Hypotheses 5 and 6 were in opposing directions. Hypothesis 5 theorizes that employee resilience weakens the negative relationship between job insecurity and employees' job performance. On the other hand, Hypothesis 6 proposed that employee resilience strengthens the positive relationship between job insecurity and employees' job performance. To generate the results for this analysis, the dependent variable, independent variable, moderator, and control variables were entered into the PROCESS Macro window. As shown in Table 4.6, resilience has a positive effect on job performance ($b = .77, p < .001$), however, the interaction term is insignificant ($b = -.05, n.s.$). These results indicate that resilience does not moderate the relationship between job insecurity and performance. Therefore, Hypotheses 5 and 6 are not supported.

Table 4.6*The Moderating Effect of Resilience*

Variables	Performance
<i>Control variables</i>	
Constant	.97
Age	.06*
Gender	.06
Tenure	.00
Education	-.03
<i>Main effects</i>	
Job Insecurity	.03
Resilience	.77***
Interaction term	-.05
R^2	0.43***
F	43.03***

Note. $N = 406$.

* $p < .05$, *** $p < .001$



The results of the hypotheses testing are summarized in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7

Results of Hypotheses Testing

Hypotheses	Result
Hypothesis 1: Job insecurity negatively affects employees' job performance.	Supported
Hypothesis 2: Job insecurity positively affects employees' performance.	Not Supported
Hypothesis 3: Challenge Stressors mediate the relationship between job insecurity and employee performance.	Supported
Hypothesis 4: Hindrance Stressors mediate the relationship between job insecurity and employee performance.	Supported
Hypothesis 5: Employee resilience weakens the negative relationship between job insecurity and employees' performance.	Not Supported
Hypothesis 6: Employee resilience strengthens the positive relationship between job insecurity and employees' performance.	Not Supported

CHAPTER V CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter presents the conclusions and discussions derived from the research findings. It also poses the theoretical and practical implications of such findings and concludes with the limitations and future research suggestions as well as the contributions of the study.

Conclusions

The current study sought to gain insight into job insecurity-related issues within the MSME sector in Belize. Specifically, it aimed to answer the following research questions. First, what is the level of job insecurity perceived by the sample of MSME employees in Belize? Second, how does the perceived job insecurity impact the performance of MSMEs employees in Belize? Third, do challenge and hindrance stressors mediate the relationship between job insecurity and employee job performance? Fourth, does employee resilience moderate the relationship between job insecurity and the performance of MSME employees in Belize?

To address the first research question, reference is made to Table 4.2, which presents the findings of perceived job insecurity among the participants. The mean score obtained on the 5-point Likert scale was 3.13, indicating a moderate level of perceived job insecurity. However, in the context of smaller populations like Belize, which has approximately 350 thousand people, even a moderate level of perceived job insecurity can be considered high and problematic. This is primarily because, in smaller populations, the impact of perceived insecurity can be more significant due to the relatively limited availability of employment alternatives when compared to larger and more developed countries. Furthermore, the research confirmed that the challenge and hindrance stressors mediate the job insecurity-performance relationship; differing perspectives on perceived job insecurity yield different performance reactions. When employees appraise perceived job insecurity as a challenge, then performance is likely to increase via the challenge effect. Conversely, when individuals appraise perceived job insecurity as a hindrance, then it weakens performance via the hindrance effect. In terms of the impact of perceived job

insecurity on the job performance of MSMEs employees in Belize, the results indicate that job insecurity negatively affects employee performance. Finally, concerning the fourth research question, the results of this study showed that resilience does not moderate the relationship between job insecurity and performance, but rather acts as a direct influence on performance.

Discussions

As previously mentioned, the extant literature has been inconclusive about the control variables that are related to employee performance. Though age and gender were the most cited control variables in studies related to employee performance, a few scholars found that neither of the two variables are related to employee performance. According to the results of the correlation analysis conducted in this study, age was indeed positively correlated with performance, but gender showed no statistical significance. In addition, later research found job tenure and education to be correlated with performance. However, in this study, job tenure was positively associated with performance while education was not. As such, this study supports the findings that age and job tenure have an effect on performance. These findings suggest that employees who are more senior in age and job tenure are likely to perform better.

Extant literature has also yielded inconclusive findings regarding the impact of job insecurity on employee performance. Accordingly, this study acknowledged the possibility that perceived job insecurity could lead to either positive or negative performance reactions. The results of the study align with previous research indicating that job insecurity negatively affects employee performance. However, the study does not provide support for the literature suggesting a positive influence of job insecurity on performance. The absence of a positive effect may be attributed to the elevated levels of stress and anxiety caused by job insecurity, which can have detrimental effects on cognitive processes and performance (Lepine et al., 2005). Existing research has shown that chronic stress impairs working memory, attentional control, and decision-making abilities (McEwen, 2007). Consequently, employees experiencing job insecurity may struggle to effectively allocate cognitive resources, thereby compromising their performance despite any perceived motivation to excel.

The current research model considered the mediation effects of challenge and hindrance stressors, as proposed by Lepine et al. (2005). Consistent with previous studies, this research supported the notion that job insecurity functions as a hindrance stressor. The results indicated that the hindrance stressor mediated the relationship between job insecurity and performance, resulting in a negative indirect effect on performance. Furthermore, the findings showed that the presence of challenge stressors mediated the relationship between job insecurity and performance while reflecting a positive indirect effect on performance. This result aligns with the expected role of the challenge stressor in the challenge and hindrance Stressor Framework. These findings are further supported by literature suggesting that the challenge effect occurs when employees increase productive behaviors as a strategy to preserve their job (Piccoli et al., 2019). Additionally, when individuals believe that their performance contributes to job security, they are motivated to work diligently and persistently (Bandura, 1997). However, if the goal of job preservation is perceived as unattainable (as may have been the case for those certain they would lose their job), individuals' motivation to work may diminish, leading to a negative effect on performance.

The findings in this research also diverge from some previous studies that have suggested that resilience can mitigate the negative effects of job insecurity on employee outcomes (e.g., Tugade & Fredrickson, 2004). The lack of moderating effect of resilience in this study could be explained by several factors. First, job insecurity is often characterized by ongoing uncertainty and threat to employment, which can create a persistent state of stress and anxiety for individuals (Sverke et al., 2002). In such circumstances, the impact of job insecurity on performance may be overwhelming and difficult to counteract, even for individuals with high levels of resilience. Moreover, job insecurity can trigger a range of emotional, cognitive, and behavioral responses such as reduced job satisfaction, increased anxiety, and decreased motivation (Cheng & Chan, 2008) that may override the buffering effect of resilience. These reactions may interfere with an individual's ability to effectively leverage their resilience resources and sustain high levels of performance. Additionally, one of the core principles of resilience is that it requires organizational support (Kuntz et al., 2016). Therefore, the organizational context and support available to employees may also contribute to the lack of moderation by resilience in this study.

Theoretical Implications

The findings of this study offer important theoretical implications, particularly as it relates to the job insecurity-performance relationship. It contributes to the broader theoretical debate surrounding the impact of job insecurity on employee outcomes, which has been a topic of interest in the human resources field for decades. The research results provide empirical evidence that job insecurity exerts a detrimental influence on performance. These findings align with previous studies that have also identified the negative effects of job insecurity on employee performance, further reinforcing the validity and significance of these findings (e.g., De Cuyper et al., 2011; Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 1984).

Moreover, the research contributes to a deeper understanding of the underlying nature of job insecurity as a hindrance stressor, supporting one of the propositions put forth by Lepine et al. (2005). It provides empirical evidence that job insecurity creates a state of persistent stress and anxiety, which hinders individuals' ability to effectively leverage resources and motivation for improved performance. Consequently, these findings emphasize the need for organizations to recognize job insecurity as a hindrance stressor and proactively develop strategies to alleviate its detrimental impact on employee performance.

Furthermore, the research suggests that resilience may not be an effective moderator in buffering the relationship between job insecurity and performance. This finding suggests that high levels of job insecurity can overwhelm individuals, making it difficult for resilience to counteract the negative effects. This finding aligns with the existing literature on resilience (Tugade & Fredrickson, 2004), which emphasizes the necessity of organizational support and the presence of attainable goals for resilience to effectively mitigate the impact of job insecurity. These implications highlight the complex interplay between job insecurity, resilience, and performance, and underscore the need to consider contextual factors and support mechanisms in comprehending this multifaceted relationship.

In conclusion, the theoretical implications derived from this research significantly contribute to the existing literature by offering empirical evidence and valuable insights into the adverse impact of job insecurity on performance. This study also reinforces the recognition of

job insecurity as a hindrance stressor and highlights the limitations of relying solely on resilience as a moderator in mitigating the detrimental effects. These implications enhance our understanding of the dynamics between job insecurity and performance and provide a foundation for future research endeavors and serve as a guiding compass for organizations aiming to develop effective strategies that alleviate the negative consequences of job insecurity on employee performance.

Practical Implications

The findings of this study emphasize the significant impact of job insecurity on employee performance, highlighting the need for organizations to take proactive measures to address this issue and provide support to mitigate its negative effects. To effectively reduce job insecurity and its consequences, several strategies for both organizations and employees are suggested below. If these strategies are collaboratively implemented, organizations and employees can alleviate the negative effects of job insecurity, promote employee well-being, and enhance overall performance.

Firstly, organizations should consistently pay attention to employees' perception of job insecurity. One way to achieve this is by maintaining open communication with employees. This includes keeping them informed about the company's plans, goals, and performance, while also providing ongoing feedback on employee performance (Jiang & Probst, 2014). By maintaining transparency and fostering a culture of trust, organizations can reduce uncertainty and create a more supportive work environment. Additionally, setting clear expectations and goals for employees is crucial. This ensures that they understand how their work contributes to the overall success of the organization. When employees have clarity in performance metrics, goals, and timelines, it enhances their confidence in their abilities and reduces their sense of uncertainty. Furthermore, investing in training and development opportunities is essential for organizations. By providing employees with avenues to acquire new skills and knowledge, organizations enhance the value of their workforce, thereby increasing job security and reducing fears of being replaced. Offering learning opportunities, workshops, and mentorship programs supports employees' professional growth and fosters a sense of stability and development within their roles. Implementing these strategies allows organizations to address job insecurity and its

detrimental effects on employee performance, thereby contributing to a more positive and productive work environment that benefits both the employees and the organization as a whole.

For employees themselves, focusing on skills development is paramount. Continuously enhancing skills and knowledge makes employees more competitive and less susceptible to job insecurity. Secondly, building positive relationships with colleagues and managers is essential in creating a supportive work environment that reduces feelings of isolation and uncertainty. Developing strong interpersonal connections fosters collaboration and a sense of belonging within the organization. Moreover, employees should prioritize their mental and physical health to effectively manage job insecurity. Employees can effectively cope with stress and uncertainty by prioritizing well-being through regular exercise, mindfulness techniques such as meditation, and seeking counseling support. Taking care of their holistic well-being enables them to better navigate challenges and maintain a positive mindset.

Furthermore, Belizean organizations can leverage the insights from the challenge and hindrance stressor framework, especially since this study revealed that both challenge and hindrance stressors play a role in mediating the relationship between job insecurity and performance (Lepine et al., 2005). To elaborate further, whenever there are changes, whether environmental, organizational, or individual, that may influence job insecurity, managers should evaluate each situation on a case-by-case basis and apply the appropriate stressor logic accordingly. For instance, in cases where extreme uncertainty arises from external factors such as a pandemic, which may be beyond the control of both the employer and employee, it would be more appropriate to address the situation using the hindrance stressor logic. In such cases, it is crucial to provide support for employees to help them cope with the stress and minimize its impact on performance (Lepine et al., 2005). Offering resources, guidance, and assistance can help alleviate the negative effects of job insecurity caused by external factors (Santos et al., 2022). On the other hand, when job insecurity arises from organizational changes in processes, promotions, or similar situations, employers should capitalize on this opportunity by cultivating challenge stressors. Creating an environment that encourages employees to view job insecurity as a challenge rather than a hindrance can be achieved by providing learning and development opportunities, granting autonomy in tasks, and recognizing and rewarding employees' efforts in overcoming challenges (Lepine et al., 2005; Piccoli et al., 2019). This flexible approach

considers the nature of the stressors and advises organizations to tailor their response based on the specific circumstances to support their employees in navigating job insecurity, ultimately enhancing performance and cultivating a positive work environment.

Limitations and Future Research Suggestions

Although this study provides valuable insights into the relationship between job insecurity and performance, some limitations need to be acknowledged. Firstly, the use of a cross-sectional design restricts the ability to establish causality, as it only provides a snapshot of data at a specific point in time. As this study was conducted at a time near the end of the pandemic, it may have influenced participants' perceptions of job insecurity and performance, potentially affecting the generalizability of the findings. Secondly, the use of closed-ended questions in the survey provided limited response options, which therefore constrained participants' ability to express the full range of their experiences and nuances related to job insecurity and performance.

Future studies should consider qualitative research approaches to supplement these quantitative findings by capturing individuals' experiences and providing deeper insights into the complex relationship between job insecurity and performance. For example, conducting one-on-one interviews with employees may provide an in-depth understanding of the individual's experiences of job insecurity and how it affects their performance. Doing so may also help to identify coping mechanisms that employees use to deal with job insecurity. Alternatively, conducting case studies of organizations where job insecurity is prevalent can provide insights into the organizational factors that contribute to job insecurity and its effects on employee performance. This can help to identify strategies that organizations can use to reduce job insecurity and improve performance. Finally, since resilience did not moderate the relationship between job insecurity and performance, it would be valuable for future research to examine other potential moderators, such as coping mechanisms or organizational support which may positively influence the relationship.

Contributions

This study provides valuable insights for both researchers and practitioners on the impact of job insecurity on employee performance. While it adds to the body of empirical evidence supporting the detrimental effects of job insecurity on employee outcomes, it also emphasizes the need for organizations to address job insecurity as it can significantly impact organizational success. Accordingly, suggestions on how to reduce perceived job insecurity were made. Furthermore, the finding that resilience does not moderate the relationship between job insecurity and performance challenges the notion that resilience is a panacea for all workplace stressors, highlighting the need for a more nuanced understanding of how different resources can impact employee outcomes. Finally, the study offers directions for future research to investigate other potential moderators of the relationship between job insecurity and performance and to explore antecedents and coping mechanisms of job insecurity.



REFERENCES

- Aguiar-Quintana, T., Nguyen, T. H. H., Araujo-Cabrera, Y., & Sanabria-Díaz, J. M. (2021). Do job insecurity, anxiety and depression caused by the Covid-19 pandemic influence hotel employees' self-rated task performance? The moderating role of employee resilience. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 94, 102868. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2021.102868>
- Anderson, C. J., & Pontusson, J. (2007). Workers, worries and welfare state: Social protection and job insecurity in 15 OECD countries. *European Journal of Political Research*, 46(2), 211–235. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1475-6765.2007.00692.x>
- Ang, S., Van Dyne, L., Koh, C., Ng, K. Y., Templer, K. J., Tay, C., & Chandrasekar, N. A. (2007). Cultural Intelligence: Its measurement and effects on cultural judgment and decision making, cultural adaptation and task performance. *Management and Organization Review*, 3(3), 335–371. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1740-8784.2007.00082.x>
- Austin, J. T., & Villanova, P. (1992). The criterion problem: 1917–1992. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 77(6), 836–874. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.77.6.836>
- Avey, J. B., Luthans, F., & Jensen, S. M. (2009). Psychological capital: A positive resource for combating employee stress and turnover. *Human Resource Management*, 48(5), 677–693. <https://doi.org/10.1002/hrm.20294>
- Avey, J. B., Nimnicht, J. L., & Graber Pigeon, N. (2010). Two field studies examining the association between positive psychological capital and employee performance. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 31(5), 384–401. <https://doi.org/10.1108/01437731011056425>
- Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-Efficacy: The Exercise of Control*. Macmillan.
- Bardoel, E. A., Pettit, T. M., De Cieri, H., & McMillan, L. (2014). Employee resilience: an emerging challenge for HRM. *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources*, 52(3), 279–297. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1744-7941.12033>
- Barling, J., & Kelloway, E. K. (1996). Job insecurity and health: The moderating role of workplace control. *Stress Medicine*, 12(4), 253–259. <https://Psycnet.Apa.Org/Record/1997-07180-006>
- Belize Labor Act, Chapter 297. § 37. (2011). <https://www.belizejudiciary.org/download/LAWS-of-Belize-rev2011/Laws-of-Belize-Update-2011/VOLUME%2015A/Cap%20297%20Labour%20Act.pdf>

- Belize Press Office. (2022, August 4). Government of Belize Cabinet Brief [Press release]. <https://www.pressoffice.gov.bz/wp-content/uploads/2022/08/Aug-4-PR216-22-Cabinet-Brief.pdf>
- Belize Trade and Investment Development Service (BELTRAIDE) & United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). (2022). National MSME strategy and roadmap for Belize. In *Belize Trade and Investment Development Service (BELTRAIDE)*. Retrieved September 9, 2022, from <https://www.beltraide.bz/publications.html>
- Berglund, T. (2015). Flexicurity, job insecurity, and well-being in European Labor Markets. In *Aligning perspectives on health, safety and well-being* (pp. 145–167). Springer International Publishing. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-017-9798-6_9
- Biggs, R., Schlüter, M., & Schoon, M. (2015). Principles for building resilience. In *Cambridge University Press eBooks*. <https://doi.org/10.1017/cbo9781316014240>
- Bland, M., & Altman, D. G. (1997). Statistics notes: Cronbach's alpha. *BMJ*, *314*(7080), 572. <https://doi.org/10.1136/bmj.314.7080.572>
- Bollen, K. A. (1989). Structural equations with latent variables. *John Wiley & Sons, Inc. eBooks*. <https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118619179>
- Bonanno, G. A. (2004). Loss, trauma, and human resilience: Have we underestimated the human capacity to thrive after extremely aversive events? *American Psychologist*, *59*(1), 20–28. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066x.59.1.20>
- Borman, W. C., & Motowidlo, S. J. (1997). Task performance and contextual performance: The meaning for personnel selection research. *Human Performance*, *10*(2), 99–109. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327043hup1002_3
- Borman, W. C., & Motowidlo, S. M. (1993). Expanding the criterion domain to include elements of contextual performance. *Psychology Faculty Publications*. https://digitalcommons.usf.edu/psy_facpub/1111
- Boswell, W. R., Olson-Buchanan, J. B., & Harris, T. B. (2015). I cannot afford to have a life: Employee adaptation to feelings of job insecurity. *SSRN Electronic Journal*. <https://doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.2556303>
- Britt, T. W., Shen, W., Sinclair, R. R., Grossman, M. R., & Klieger, D. M. (2016). How much do we really know about employee resilience? *Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, *9*(2), 378–404. <https://doi.org/10.1017/iop.2015.107>
- Byrne, B. M. (2013). *Structural Equation Modeling with Lisrel, Prelis, and Simplis: Basic Concepts, Applications, and Programming*. Psychology Press.

- Campbell, J. P., & Wiernik, B. M. (2015). The modeling and assessment of work performance. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior*, 2(1), 47–74. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-orgpsych-032414-111427>
- Caniëls, M. C., Hatak, I., Kuijpers, K. J., & de Weerd-Nederhof, P. C. (2022). Trait resilience and resilient behavior at work: The mediating role of the learning climate. *Acta Psychologica*, 228, 103654. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.actpsy.2022.103654>
- Chapin, F. S., Carpenter, S. R., Kofinas, G. P., Folke, C., Abel, N., Clark, W. C., Olsson, P., Smith, D. M. S., Walker, B., Young, O. R., Berkes, F., Biggs, R., Grove, J. M., Naylor, R. L., Pinkerton, E., Steffen, W., & Swanson, F. J. (2010) Ecosystem stewardship: Sustainability strategies for a rapidly changing planet. *Trends in Ecology & Evolution*, 25(4), 241–249. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tree.2009.10.008>
- Charkhabi, M. (2018). Do cognitive appraisals moderate the link between qualitative job insecurity and psychological-behavioral well-being? *International Journal of Workplace Health Management*, 11(6), 424–444. <https://doi.org/10.1108/ijwhm-01-2018-0008>
- Che Rose, R., Sri Ramalu, S., Uli, J., & Kumar, N. (2010). Expatriate performance in international assignments: The role of cultural intelligence as dynamic intercultural competency. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 5(8). <https://doi.org/10.5539/ijbm.v5n8p76>
- Cheng, G. H. L., & Chan, D. K. S. (2008). Who suffers more from job insecurity? A meta-analytic review. *Applied Psychology*, 57(2), 272–303. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1464-0597.2007.00312.x>
- Combs, J., Liu, Y., Hall, A., & Ketchen, D. (2006). How much do high-performance work practices matter? A meta-analysis of their effects on organizational performance. *Personnel Psychology*, 59(3), 501–528. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.2006.00045.x>
- Cooper, B., Wang, J., Bartram, T., & Cooke, F. L. (2018). Well-being-oriented human resource management practices and employee performance in the Chinese banking sector: The role of social climate and resilience. *Human Resource Management*, 58(1), 85–97. <https://doi.org/10.1002/hrm.21934>
- Côté, S., & Miners, C. T. H. (2006). Emotional intelligence, cognitive intelligence, and job performance. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 51(1), 1–28. <https://doi.org/10.2189/asqu.51.1.1>
- Dåderman, A. M., Ingelgård, A., & Koopmans, L. (2020). Cross-cultural adaptation, from Dutch to Swedish language, of the Individual Work Performance Questionnaire. *Work*, 65(1), 97–109. <https://doi.org/10.3233/wor-193062>

- Dalal, R. S., Baysinger, M., Brummel, B. J., & LeBreton, J. M. (2012). The relative importance of employee engagement, other job attitudes, and trait affect as predictors of job performance. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 42*, E295–E325. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1559-1816.2012.01017.x>
- De Cuyper, N., & De Witte, H. (2006). The impact of job insecurity and contract type on attitudes, well-being and behavioral reports: A psychological contract perspective. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 79*(3), 395–409. <https://doi.org/10.1348/096317905x53660>
- De Cuyper, N., Baillien, E., & De Witte, H. (2009). Job insecurity, perceived employability and targets' and perpetrators' experiences of workplace bullying. *Work & Stress, 23*(3), 206–224. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02678370903257578>
- De Cuyper, N., Bernhard-Oettel, C., Berntson, E., De Witte, H., & Alarco, B. (2008). Employability and employees' well-being: Mediation by job insecurity. *Applied Psychology, 57*(3), 488–509. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1464-0597.2008.00332.x>
- De Witte, H. (1999). Job insecurity and psychological well-being: Review of the literature and exploration of some unresolved issues. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology, 8*(2), 155–177. <https://doi.org/10.1080/135943299398302>
- De Witte, H. (2000). 'Arbeidsethos en job onzekerheid: Meting en gevolgen voor welzijn, tevredenheid en inzet op het werk (Work ethic and job insecurity: Assessment and consequences for well-being, satisfaction and performance at work)', In *Bouwen, R. De Witte., K. De Witte, H. & Taillieu, T. (Eds), Van Groep tot Gemeenschap (From Group to Community)*. Leuven, Belgium: Garant.
- De Witte, H. (2005). Job insecurity: Review of the international literature on definitions, prevalence, antecedents and consequences. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology, 31*(4). <https://doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v31i4.200>
- De Witte, H., & Näswall, K. (2003). 'Objective' vs 'subjective' job insecurity: Consequences of temporary work for job satisfaction and organizational commitment in four European countries. *Economic and Industrial Democracy, 24*(2), 149–188. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0143831x03024002002>
- De Witte, H., Pienaar, J., & De Cuyper, N. (2016). Review of 30 years of longitudinal studies on the association between job insecurity and health and well-being: Is there causal evidence? *Australian Psychologist, 51*(1), 18–31. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ap.12176>
- De Witte, H., Vander Elst, T., & De Cuyper, N. (2015). Job insecurity, health and well-being. In *Aligning Perspectives on Health, Safety and Well-Being*, 109–128. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-017-9798-6_7

- Debus, M. E., König, C. J., & Kleinmann, M. (2013). The building blocks of job insecurity: The impact of environmental and person-related variables on job insecurity perceptions. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 87(2), 329–351. <https://doi.org/10.1111/joop.12049>
- DeVellis, R. F., & Thorpe, C. T. (2021). *Scale development: Theory and applications*. SAGE Publications. <https://rb.gy/99yz9>
- Elenko, I. W. (1960). Sell business education through dramatics. *The Journal of Business Education*, 36(1), 10–13. <https://doi.org/10.1080/08832323.1960.10116357>
- Estes, B., & Wang, J. (2008). Integrative literature review: Workplace incivility: Impacts on individual and organizational performance. *Human Resource Development Review*, 7(2), 218–240. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1534484308315565>
- Feather, N. T., & Rauter, K. A. (2004). Organizational citizenship behaviours in relation to job status, job insecurity, organizational commitment and identification, job satisfaction and work values. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 77(1), 81–94. <https://doi.org/10.1348/096317904322915928>
- Gallagher, R. M. (1996). Referral delay in back pain patients on worker's compensation. *Psychosomatics*, 37(3), 270–284. [https://doi.org/10.1016/s0033-3182\(96\)71566-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0033-3182(96)71566-9)
- Galli, N., & Gonzalez, S. P. (2014). Psychological resilience in sport: A review of the literature and implications for research and practice. *International Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology*, 13(3), 243–257. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1612197x.2014.946947>
- Gaskin, J., & Lim, J. (2016). Master validity tool. AMOS Plugin In: *Gaskinations's StatWiki*. <http://statwiki.gaskination.com/index.php?title=Plugins>
- Gilboa, S., Shirom, A., Fried, Y., & Cooper, C. (2008). A meta-analysis of work demand stressors and job performance: Examining main and moderating effects. *Personnel Psychology*, 61(2), 227–271. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.2008.00113.x>
- Greenhalgh, L., & Rosenblatt, Z. (1984). Job insecurity: Toward conceptual clarity. *Academy of Management Review*, 9(3), 438–448. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.1984.4279673>
- Greenhalgh, L., & Rosenblatt, Z. (2010). Evolution of research on job insecurity. *International Studies of Management & Organization*, 40(1), 6–19. <https://doi.org/10.2753/imo0020-8825400101>
- Hair, J. F., Jr, Hult, G. T. M., Ringle, C., & Sarstedt, M. (2016). *A Primer on Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM)*. SAGE Publications.

- Harrison, D. A., Newman, D. A., & Roth, P. L. (2006). How important are job attitudes? Meta-analytic comparisons of integrative behavioral outcomes and time sequences. *Academy of Management Journal*, 49(2), 305–325. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2006.20786077>
- Hellgren, J., Sverke, M., & Isaksson, K. (1999). A two-dimensional approach to job insecurity: Consequences for employee attitudes and well-being. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 8(2), 179–195. <https://doi.org/10.1080/135943299398311>
- Hobfoll, S. E. (1989). Conservation of resources: A new attempt at conceptualizing stress. *American Psychologist*, 44(3), 513–524. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066x.44.3.513>
- Hodson, R., Roscigno, V. J., & Lopez, S. H. (2006). Chaos and the abuse of power. *Work and Occupations*, 33(4), 382–416. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0730888406292885>
- Hoffman, B. J., & Dilchert, S. (2012). A review of citizenship and counterproductive behaviors in organizational decision-making. *The Oxford Handbook of Personnel Assessment and Selection*, 543–569. <https://doi.org/10.1093/oxfordhb/9780199732579.013.0024>
- Holmgren, L., Tirone, V., Gerhart, J., & Hobfoll, S. E. (2017). Conservation of resources theory. *The Handbook of Stress and Health*, 443–457. <https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118993811.ch27>
- Hooper, D., Coughlan, J., & Mullen, M. T. (2008). Structural equation modeling: Guidelines for determining model fit. *The Electronic Journal of Business Research Methods*, 6(1). <https://doi.org/10.21427/d7cf7r>
- Hosseini, S., Barker, K., & Ramirez-Marquez, J. E. (2016). A review of definitions and measures of system resilience. *Reliability Engineering & System Safety*, 145, 47–61. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.res.2015.08.006>
- Hu, L. T., & Bentler, P. M. (1999). Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. *Structural Equation Modeling: A Multidisciplinary Journal*, 6 (1), 1–55. <https://doi.org/10.1111/apps.12335>
- International Labour Organization. (2021). Uncertain and uneven recovery expected following unprecedented labour market crisis. *International Labour Organization (ILO)*. Retrieved August 28, 2022, from https://www.ilo.org/global/about-the-ilo/newsroom/news/WCMS_766949/lang--en/index.htm
- International Labour Organization. (2022). ILO to conduct Actuarial Review of Belize's Social Security Scheme and the cost assessment for the unemployment insurance. *International Labour Organization*. https://www.ilo.org/caribbean/newsroom/WCMS_854750/lang--en/index.htm

- Jackson, D., Firtko, A., & Edenborough, M. (2007). Personal resilience as a strategy for surviving and thriving in the face of workplace adversity: a literature review. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 60(1), 1–9. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2648.2007.04412.x>
- Jiang, L., & Lavaysse, L. M. (2018). Cognitive and affective job insecurity: A meta-analysis and a primary study. *Journal of Management*, 44(6), 2307–2342. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206318773853>
- Jiang, L., & Probst, T. M. (2014). Organizational communication: A buffer in times of job insecurity? *Economic & Industrial Democracy*, 35(3), 557–579. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0143831x13489356>
- Jiang, L., Xu, X., & Wang, H. J. (2021). A resources–demands approach to sources of job insecurity: A multilevel meta-analytic investigation. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 26(2), 108–126. <https://doi.org/10.1037/ocp0000267>
- Kašpárková, L., Vaculík, M., Procházka, J., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2018, January 2). Why resilient workers perform better: The roles of job satisfaction and work engagement. *Journal of Workplace Behavioral Health*, 33(1), 43–62. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15555240.2018.1441719>
- King, J. E. (2000). White-collar reactions to job insecurity and the role of the psychological contract: Implications for human resource management. *Human Resource Management*, 39(1), 79–92. [https://doi.org/10.1002/\(SICI\)1099-050X\(200021\)39:1<79::AID-HRM7>3.0.CO;2-A](https://doi.org/10.1002/(SICI)1099-050X(200021)39:1<79::AID-HRM7>3.0.CO;2-A)
- Klandermans, B., & van Vuuren, T. (1999). Job insecurity: Introduction. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 8(2), 145–153. <https://doi.org/10.1080/135943299398294>
- König, C. J., Debus, M. E., Häusler, S., Lendenmann, N., & Kleinmann, M. (2010). Examining occupational self-efficacy, work locus of control and communication as moderators of the job insecurity—job performance relationship. *Economic and Industrial Democracy*, 31(2), 231–247. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0143831x09358629>
- Koopmans, L., Bernaards, C. M., Hildebrandt, V. H., de Vet, H. C. W., & van der Beek, A. J. (2014). Construct validity of the Individual Work Performance Questionnaire. *Journal of Occupational and Environmental Medicine*, 56(3), 331–337. <https://doi.org/10.1097/jom.000000000000113>
- Koopmans, L., Bernaards, C. M., Hildebrandt, V. H., Lerner, D., de Vet, H. C., & van der Beek, A. J. (2016). Cross-cultural adaptation of the Individual Work Performance Questionnaire. *Work*, 53(3), 609–619. <https://doi.org/10.3233/wor-152237>
- Koopmans, L., Bernaards, C. M., Hildebrandt, V. H., Schaufeli, W. B., de Vet Henrica, C., & Van der Beek, A. J. (2011). Conceptual frameworks of individual work performance- a systematic review. *Journal of Occupational & Environmental Medicine*, 53(8), 856–866. <https://doi.org/10.1097/jom.0b013e318226a763>

- Koopmans, L., Bernaards, C. M., Hildebrandt, V. H., Van Buuren, S., Van Der Beek, A. J., & De Vet, H. C. (2014). Individual Work Performance Questionnaire [Dataset]. In *PsycTESTS Dataset*. <https://doi.org/10.1037/t35489-000>
- Koopmans, L., Bernaards, C.M., Hildebrandt, V.H., Van Buuren, S., van der Beek, A. J., & de Vet, H. C. (2012). Development of an Individual Work Performance Questionnaire. *International Journal of Productivity and Performance Management*, 62(1), 6–28. <https://doi.org/10.1108/17410401311285273>
- Kuntz, J. R. C., Näswall, K., & Malinen, S. (2016). Resilient employees in resilient organizations: Flourishing beyond adversity. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, 9(2), 456–462. <https://doi.org/10.1017/iop.2016.39>
- Kuntz, J., Connell, P., & Näswall, K. (2017). Workplace resources and employee resilience: the role of regulatory profiles. *Career Development International*, 22(4), 419–435. <https://doi.org/10.1108/cdi-11-2016-0208>
- Kuntz, J., Malinen, S., & Näswall, K. (2017).). Employee resilience: Directions for resilience development. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, 69(3), 223–242. <https://doi.org/10.1037/cpb0000097>
- Låstad, L., Berntson, E., Näswall, K., Lindfors, P., & Sverke, M. (2015). Measuring quantitative and qualitative aspects of the job insecurity climate. *Career Development International*, 20(3), 202–217. <https://doi.org/10.1108/cdi-03-2014-0047>
- Lawler, E. E., & Porter, L. W. (1967). The effect of performance on job satisfaction. *Industrial Relations*, 7(1), 20–28. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-232x.1967.tb01060.x>
- Lazarus, R. S., PhD, & Folkman, S., PhD. (1984). Stress, Appraisal, and Coping. *Springer Publishing*.
- Lee, C., Huang, G. H., & Ashford, S. J. (2018). Job insecurity and the changing workplace: Recent developments and the future trends in job insecurity research. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior*, 5(1), 335–359. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-orgpsych-032117-104651>
- Lee, L. Y., & Sukoco, B. M. (2010). The effects of cultural intelligence on expatriate performance: the moderating effects of international experience. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 21(7), 963–981. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09585191003783397>
- Lengnick-Hall, C. A., Beck, T. E., & Lengnick-Hall, M. L. (2011). Developing a capacity for organizational resilience through strategic human resource management. *Human Resource Management Review*, 21(3), 243–255. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.hrmr.2010.07.001>

- LePine, J. A., Erez, A., & Johnson, D. E. (2002). The nature and dimensionality of organizational citizenship behavior: A critical review and meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(1), 52–65. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.87.1.52>
- Lepine, J. A., Podsakoff, N. P., & Lepine, M. A. (2005). A meta-analytic test of the challenge stressor–hindrance stressor framework: An explanation for inconsistent relationships among stressors and performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 48(5), 764–775. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2005.18803921>
- LePine, M. A. (2022). The challenge-hindrance stressor framework: An integrative conceptual review and path forward. *Group & Organization Management*, 47(2), 223–254. <https://doi.org/10.1177/10596011221079970>
- Lin, W., Shao, Y., Li, G., Guo, Y., & Zhan, X. (2021). The psychological implications of Covid-19 on employee job insecurity and its consequences: The mitigating role of organization adaptive practices. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 106(3), 317–329. <https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000896>
- Liu, C. K. (2018). The role of micro, small and medium-sized enterprises (MSMEs) in achieving the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) [Policy brief]. United Nations. <https://sdgs.un.org/publications/policy-brief-role-micro-small-and-medium-sized-enterprises-msmes-achieving-sustainable>
- Loepke, R., Hymel, P. A., Lofland, J. H., Pizzi, L. T., Konicki, D. L., Anstadt, G. W., Baase, C., Fortuna, J., & Scharf, T. (2003). Health-related workplace productivity measurement: General and migraine-specific recommendations from the ACOEM Expert Panel. *Journal of Occupational and Environmental Medicine*, 45(4), 349–359. <https://doi.org/10.1097/01.jom.0000063619.37065.e2>
- Loi, R., Ngo, H. Y., Zhang, L., & Lau, V. P. (2011). The interaction between leader-member exchange and perceived job security in predicting employee altruism and work performance. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 84(4), 669–685. <https://doi.org/10.1348/096317910x510468>
- Luthans, F., Vogelgesang, G. R., & Lester, P. B. (2006). Developing the psychological capital of resiliency. *Human Resource Development Review*, 5(1), 25–44. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1534484305285335>
- MacCallum, R. C., Browne, M. W., & Sugawara, H. M. (1996). Power analysis and determination of sample size for covariance structure modeling. *Psychological Methods*, 1 (2), 130–149. <https://doi.org/10.1037/1082-989X.1.2.130>
- MacKenzie, S. B., Podsakoff, P. M., & Fetter, R. D. (1991). Organizational citizenship behavior and objective productivity as determinants of managerial evaluations of salespersons' performance. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 50(1), 123–150. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0749-5978\(91\)90037-t](https://doi.org/10.1016/0749-5978(91)90037-t)

- Mäder, I. A., & Niessen, C. (2017). Nonlinear associations between job insecurity and adaptive performance: The mediating role of negative affect and negative work reflection. *Human Performance*, 30(5), 231–253. <https://doi.org/10.1080/08959285.2017.1364243>
- Masten, A. S. (2001). Ordinary magic: Resilience processes in development. *American Psychologist*, 56(3), 227–238. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066x.56.3.227>
- McEwen, B. S. (2007). Physiology and neurobiology of stress and adaptation: Central role of the brain. *Physiological Reviews*, 87(3), 873–904. <https://doi.org/10.1152/physrev.00041.2006>
- McLean Parks, J., Kidder, D. L., & Gallagher, D. G. (1998). Fitting square pegs into round holes: Mapping the domain of contingent work arrangements onto the psychological contract. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 19(S1), 697–730. [https://doi.org/10.1002/\(SICI\)1099-1379\(1998\)19:1+<697::AID-JOB974>3.0.CO;2-I](https://doi.org/10.1002/(SICI)1099-1379(1998)19:1+<697::AID-JOB974>3.0.CO;2-I)
- Meneghel, I., Salanova, M., & Martínez, I. M. (2016). Feeling good makes us stronger: How team resilience mediates the effect of positive emotions on team performance. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 17(1), 239–255. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10902-014-9592-6>
- Mensah, J. K. (2015). A coalesced framework of talent management and employee performance. *International Journal of Productivity and Performance Management*, 64(4), 544–566. <https://doi.org/10.1108/ijppm-07-2014-0100>
- Motowidlo, S. J., & Van Scotter, J. R. (1994). Evidence that task performance should be distinguished from contextual performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 79(4), 475–480. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.79.4.475>
- Näswall, K., & De Witte, H. (2003). Who feels insecure in Europe? Predicting job insecurity from background variables. *Economic and Industrial Democracy*, 24(2), 189–215. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0143831x03024002003>
- Näswall, K., Kuntz, J., Hodliffe, M and Malinen, S. (2015). Employee resilience scale (EmpRes) measurement properties. *Resilient Organisations Research Report*, 2015/04. <https://www.resorgs.org.nz/publications/employee-resilience-scale/>
- Näswall, K., Malinen, S., Kuntz, J., & Hodliffe, M. (2019). Employee resilience: Development and validation of a measure. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 34(5), 353–367. <https://doi.org/10.1108/jmp-02-2018-0102>
- Nemteanu, M. S., Dinu, V., & Dabija, D. C. (2021). Job insecurity, job instability, and job satisfaction in the context of the Covid-19 pandemic. *Journal of Competitiveness*, 13(2), 65–82. <https://doi.org/10.7441/joc.2021.02.04>
- Nguyen, N. N., Nham, P. T., & Takahashi, Y. (2019). Relationship between ability-based emotional intelligence, cognitive intelligence, and job performance. *Sustainability*, 11(8), 2299. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su11082299>

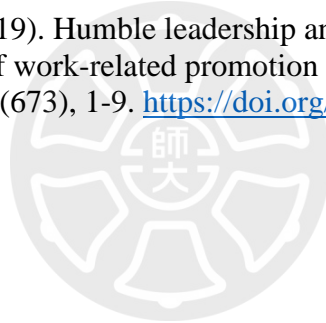
- Nguyen, Q.K., Kuntz, J.C., Näswall, K., & Malinen, S.K. (2016). Employee resilience and leadership styles: The moderating role of proactive personality and optimism. *New Zealand Journal of Psychology*, 45(2), 13-21. <https://www.psychology.org.nz/journal-archive/Employee-resilience-and-leadership-styles.pdf>
- Niesen, W., van Hootegem, A., Vander Elst, T., Battistelli, A., & De Witte, H. (2018). Job insecurity and innovative work behaviour: A psychological contract perspective. *Psychologica Belgica*, 57(4), 174–189. <https://doi.org/10.5334/pb.381>
- Notelaers, G., De Witte, H., & Einarsen, S. (2010). A job characteristics approach to explain workplace bullying. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 19(4), 487–504. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13594320903007620>
- Nunnally, J. C. (1978). *Psychometric theory*. McGraw-Hill Companies.
- Organ, D. W., & Ryan, K. (1995). A meta-analytic review of attitudinal and dispositional predictors of organizational citizenship behavior. *Personnel Psychology*, 48(4), 775–802. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.1995.tb01781.x>
- Piccoli, B., & De Witte, H. (2015). Job insecurity and emotional exhaustion: Testing psychological contract breach versus distributive injustice as indicators of lack of reciprocity. *Work & Stress*, 29(3), 246–263. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02678373.2015.1075624>
- Piccoli, B., Reisel, W. D., & De Witte, H. (2019). Understanding the relationship between job insecurity and performance: Hindrance or challenge effect? *Journal of Career Development*, 48(2), 150–165. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0894845319833189>
- Plimmer, G., Berman, E. M., Malinen, S., Franken, E., Näswall, K., Kuntz, J., & Löfgren, K. (2021). Resilience in public sector managers. *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, 42(2), 338–367. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0734371x20985105>
- Prayag, G. (2018). Symbiotic relationship or not? Understanding resilience and crisis management in tourism. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 25, 133–135. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tmp.2017.11.012>
- Probst, T. M. (2002). Layoffs and tradeoffs: Production, quality, and safety demands under the threat of job loss. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 7(3), 211–220. <https://doi.org/10.1037/1076-8998.7.3.211>
- Probst, T. M. (2003). Development and validation of the Job Security Index and the Job Security Satisfaction scale: A classical test theory and IRT approach. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 76(4), 451–467. <https://doi.org/10.1348/096317903322591587>
- Probst, T. M., Barbaranelli, C., & Petitta, L. (2013). The relationship between job insecurity and accident under-reporting: A test in two countries. *Work & Stress*, 27(4), 383–402. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02678373.2013.850756>

- Probst, T. M., Stewart, S. M., Gruys, M. L., & Tierney, B. W. (2007). Productivity, counterproductivity and creativity: The ups and downs of job insecurity. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 80(3), 479–497. <https://doi.org/10.1348/096317906x159103>
- Ramawickrama, J., Opatha, H. H. D. N. P., & PushpaKumari, M. D. (2017). A synthesis towards the construct of job performance. *International Business Research*, 10(10), 66–81. <https://doi.org/10.5539/ibr.v10n10p66>
- Ramos-Villagrasa, P. J., Barrada, J. R., Fernández-del-Río, E., & Koopmans, L. (2019). Assessing job performance using brief self-report scales: The case of the Individual Work Performance Questionnaire. *Revista De Psicología Del Trabajo Y De Las Organizaciones*, 35(3), 195–205. <https://doi.org/10.5093/jwop2019a21>
- Reivich, K. J., Seligman, M. E. P., & McBride, S. (2011). Master resilience training in the U.S. Army. *American Psychologist*, 66(1), 25–34. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0021897>
- Richardson, G. E. (2002). The metatheory of resilience and resiliency. *Journal of Clinical Psychology*, 58(3), 307–321. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jclp.10020>
- Richter, A., & Näswall, K. (2018). Job insecurity and trust: Uncovering a mechanism linking job insecurity to well-being. *Work & Stress*, 33(1), 22–40. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02678373.2018.1461709>
- Sahadi, J. (2022, April 28). Recession fears are mounting. Here's how to protect your money. *CNN Business*. <https://us.cnn.com/2022/04/28/success/money-moves-recession-geopolitical-unrest/index.html>
- Salin, D. (2003). Bullying and organisational politics in competitive and rapidly changing work environments. *International Journal of Management and Decision Making*, 4(1), 35. <https://doi.org/10.1504/ijmdm.2003.002487>
- Santalla-Banderali, Z., & Alvarado, J. M. (2022). Factorial structure of Individual Work Performance Questionnaire (Version 1.0) revisited: Evaluation of acquiescence bias. *PLOS ONE*, 17(7), e0271830. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0271830>
- Sarkar, M., Fletcher, D., & Crane, M. F. (2017). How resilience training can enhance wellbeing and performance. In M. F. Crane (Ed.) *Managing for resilience: A practical guide for employee wellbeing and organizational performance* (1st ed., pp. 227–237). Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315648033>
- Schmidt, F. L., & Hunter, J. E. (1992). Development of a causal model of processes determining job performance. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 1(3), 89–92. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-8721.ep10768758>
- Schreurs, B. H. J., Hetty van Emmerik, I., Günter, H., & Germeys, F. (2012). A weekly diary study on the buffering role of social support in the relationship between job insecurity

- and employee performance. *Human Resource Management*, 51(2), 259–279. <https://doi.org/10.1002/hrm.21465>
- Selenko, E., Mäkikangas, A., Mauno, S., & Kinnunen, U. (2013). How does job insecurity relate to self-reported job performance? Analysing curvilinear associations in a longitudinal sample. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 86(4), 522–542. <https://doi.org/10.1111/joop.12020>
- Sharma, N., Tabandeh, A., & Gardoni, P. (2017). Resilience analysis: a mathematical formulation to model resilience of engineering systems. *Sustainable and Resilient Infrastructure*, 3(2), 49–67. <https://doi.org/10.1080/23789689.2017.1345257>
- Shoss, M. K. (2017). Job Insecurity: An integrative review and agenda for future research. *Journal of Management*, 43(6), 1911–1939. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206317691574>
- Shoss, M. K., Jiang, L., & Probst, T. M. (2018). Bending without breaking: A two-study examination of employee resilience in the face of job insecurity. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 23(1), 112–126. <https://doi.org/10.1037/ocp0000060>
- Statistical Institute of Belize. (2010). Belize Population and Housing Census. http://sib.org.bz/wp-content/uploads/2010_Census_Report.pdf
- Statistical Institute of Belize. (2021). *Impact of Covid on Business Establishments Survey 2020*. Retrieved August 28, 2022, from <https://sib.org.bz/statistics/business-establishment-surveys/business-establishments-survey-2020/>
- Staufenbiel, T., & König, C. J. (2010). A model for the effects of job insecurity on performance, turnover intention, and absenteeism. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 83(1), 101–117. <https://doi.org/10.1348/096317908x401912>
- Sutcliffe, K. M., & Vogus, T. J. (2003). Organizing for resilience. In K. S. Cameron, J. E. Dutton, & R. E. Quinn (Eds.), *Positive organizational scholarship* (pp. 94-110). San Francisco: Berrett-Kohler. <https://rb.gy/y6g7v>
- Sverke, M., Hellgren, J., & Näswall, K. (2002). No security: A meta-analysis and review of job insecurity and its consequences. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 7(3), 242–264. <https://doi.org/10.1037/1076-8998.7.3.242>
- Sverke, M., Låstad, L., Hellgren, J., Richter, A., & Näswall, K. (2019). A meta-analysis of job insecurity and employee performance: Testing temporal aspects, rating source, welfare regime, and union density as moderators. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 16(14), 2536. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph16142536>
- Tavakol, M., & Dennick, R. (2011). Making sense of Cronbach's alpha. *International Journal of Medical Education*, 2, 53–55. <https://doi.org/10.5116/ijme.4dfb.8dfd>

- Tugade, M. M., & Fredrickson, B. L. (2004). Resilient individuals use positive emotions to bounce back from negative emotional experiences. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 86(2), 320–333. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.86.2.320>
- U.S. Department of Labor. (n.d.). *How do I file for unemployment insurance?* Retrieved November 28, 2022, from <https://www.dol.gov/general/topic/unemployment-insurance>
- United Nations Conference on Trade and Development. (2022, February 17). The Covid-19 pandemic impact on micro, small and medium-sized enterprises. *UNCTAD*. <https://unctad.org/webflyer/covid-19-pandemic-impact-micro-small-and-medium-sized-enterprises>
- Van Der Vaart, L. (2021). The performance measurement conundrum: Construct validity of the Individual Work Performance Questionnaire in South Africa. *South African Journal of Economic and Management Sciences*, 24(1). <https://doi.org/10.4102/sajems.v24i1.3581>
- Vander Elst, T., De Witte, H., & De Cuyper, N. (2013). The Job Insecurity Scale: A psychometric evaluation across five European countries. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 23(3), 364–380. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1359432x.2012.745989>
- Vander Elst, T., Näswall, K., Bernhard-Oettel, C., De Witte, H., & Sverke, M. (2016). The effect of job insecurity on employee health complaints: A within-person analysis of the explanatory role of threats to the manifest and latent benefits of work. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 21(1), 65–76. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0039140>
- Viswesvaran, C., & Ones, D. S. (2000). Perspectives on models of job performance. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, 8(4), 216–226. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1468-2389.00151>
- Vroom, V.H. (1964). *Work and motivation*. Wiley.
- Vu, T. V., Vo-Thanh, T., Nguyen, N. P., Nguyen, D. V., & Chi, H. (2022). The Covid-19 pandemic: Workplace safety management practices, job insecurity, and employees' organizational citizenship behavior. *Safety Science*, 145, 1-11. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ssci.2021.105527>
- Wagnild, G., & Young, H. (1993). Development and psychometric evaluation of the Resilience Scale. *Journal of Nursing Measurement*, 1(2), 165–178. <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/7850498/>
- Waldman, D. A. (1994). The contributions of total quality management to a theory of work performance. *Academy of Management Review*, 19(3), 510–536. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.1994.9412271811>
- Woods, D. D. (2015). Four concepts for resilience and the implications for the future of resilience engineering. *Reliability Engineering & System Safety*, 141, 5–9. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.res.2015.03.018>

- World Health Organization (WHO). (2020, March 11). WHO Director-General's opening remarks at the media briefing on Covid-19 - 11 March 2020. *World Health Organization*. <https://www.who.int/director-general/speeches/detail/who-director-general-s-opening-remarks-at-the-media-briefing-on-covid-19---11-march-2020>
- Yang, Y., & Li, X. (2021). The Impact of Challenge and Hindrance Stressors on Thriving at Work Double Mediation Based on Affect and Motivation. *Frontiers in Psychology, 12*. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2021.613871>
- Yang, S., & Zheng, L. (2015). Perceived job insecurity of White and Black workers: An expanded gap in organizations with layoff prevention commitment. *Sociological Spectrum, 35*(6), 483–503. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02732173.2015.1064797>
- Yates, T. M., & Masten, A. S. (2004). Fostering the future: Resilience theory and the practice of positive psychology. *Positive Psychology in Practice, 5*, 521–539. <https://doi.org/10.1002/9780470939338.ch32>
- Youssef, C. M., & Luthans, F. (2007). Positive organizational behavior in the workplace. *Journal of Management, 33*(5), 774–800. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206307305562>
- Zhu, Y., Zhang, S., & Shen, Y. (2019). Humble leadership and employee resilience: Exploring the mediating mechanism of work-related promotion focus and perceived insider identity. *Frontiers in Psychology, 10*(673), 1-9. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2019.00673>



APPENDIX A: PARTICIPATION INVITATION LETTER

Greetings,

I am Gale Quiroz, a graduate student at the Graduate Institute of International Human Resource Development at National Taiwan Normal University, Taiwan, R.O.C. I would like to extend to you an invitation to participate in my study, which is designed to deepen our understanding of job insecurity within the micro, small, and medium enterprises (MSME) sector in Belize. This study is open to all MSME employees in Belize, regardless of age, tenure, education level, or industry.

To participate, you will be required to answer basic demographic questions and rate the questionnaire items using the provided scale in each section. The questionnaire will take approximately 10-15 minutes to complete, and participation is entirely voluntary. Your submission of the completed survey indicates your consent to participate in the study. I assure you that all information you provide will remain **ANONYMOUS**, and you will not be required to provide your name or any other identifying information.

Your participation in this research is highly valued as the results will be used to present significant findings regarding reactions to job insecurity and provide implications for company policies. Thank you in advance for participating in this research. If you have any inquiries about the survey questionnaire, please do not hesitate to contact me at quirozgale@gmail.com.

Best Regards,

Graduate Student: Gale Quiroz

Graduate Institute of International Human Resource Development

NATIONAL TAIWAN NORMAL UNIVERSITY

Advisor: Chu-Chen Rosa Yeh, PhD

APPENDIX B: QUESTIONNAIRE

Participant Screening Question:

Do you work for a business/company that has less than 51 employees?

Yes

(Please proceed to answer the following questions.)

No

(Please stop here; this study is surveying MSME employees only. Thank you for your willingness to participate.)

Demographics

Personal Profile:

Age: _____

Gender: male female

Highest level of Education: less than primary school primary school high school
associate's Degree trade School bachelor's Degree master's Degree Ph.D

Employment information:

Organizational position: _____ **Number of months with current organization:** _____

Number of employees at your current organization:

Less than 5 employees 5-19 employees: 20-50 employees

Work location (District only):

Corozal Orange Walk Belize Cayo Stann Creek Toledo

Industry:

Primary Sector	<input type="checkbox"/> agriculture, forestry, and fishing
Secondary Sector	<input type="checkbox"/> manufacturing
	<input type="checkbox"/> construction and real estate
Tertiary Sector	<input type="checkbox"/> wholesale and retail trade; auto repair
	<input type="checkbox"/> accommodation, food, and beverage services
	<input type="checkbox"/> professional, scientific, and technical activities
	<input type="checkbox"/> administrative and support service activities
	<input type="checkbox"/> information and communication
	<input type="checkbox"/> transportation and storage
	<input type="checkbox"/> financial and insurance activities
	<input type="checkbox"/> real estate activities
	<input type="checkbox"/> education
	<input type="checkbox"/> human health and social work activities

___ arts, entertainment, and recreation ___ activities of households as employers ___ Other

The following statements reflect employees' **cognitive appraisals of job insecurity**. Please rate the extent to which you agree/disagree with the following:

Challenge Stressor		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	Job insecurity provides opportunities to improve my job skills					
2	Job insecurity makes me focus on my work so that I can perform well					
3	Job insecurity gives me the feeling that I can achieve something					
Hindrance Stressor						
4.	Job insecurity undermines my concentration on my job					
5.	Job insecurity limits me in performing well					
6.	Job insecurity undermines my work efforts					

The following statements reflect employees' perception of **job insecurity**. Please rate the extent to which you agree/disagree with the following:

Job insecurity (JI)		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	Chances are, I will soon lose my job.					
2	I am sure I can keep my job.					
3	I feel insecure about the future of my job.					
4	I think I might lose my job in the near future.					

The following statements reflect employees' **self-rated performance**. Please indicate the frequency to which these statements apply to your performance at your current organization within the last three months.

Task performance (TP) In the past 3 months...		Seldom	Sometimes	Regularly	Often	Always
1	I managed to plan my work so that it was done on time.					
2	My planning was optimal.					
3	I kept in mind the results that I had to achieve in my work.					
4	I was able to separate main issues from side issues at work.					
5	I was able to perform my work well with minimal time and effort.					
Contextual performance (CP) In the past 3 months...		Seldom	Sometimes	Regularly	Often	Always
6	I took on extra responsibilities.					
7	I started new tasks myself, when my old ones were finished.					
8	I took on challenging work tasks, when available.					
9	I worked at keeping my job knowledge up-to-date.					
10	I worked at keeping my job skills up-to-date.					
11	I came up with creative solutions to new problems.					
12	I kept looking for new challenges in my job.					
13	I actively participated in meetings and/or consultations.					
<p>The following statements reflect employees' employee resilience. Kindly read each item and rate it accordingly.</p>						
Employee Resilience (ER)		Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always
1.	I effectively collaborate with others to handle challenges at work.					
2.	I successfully manage a high workload for long periods of time.					
3.	I resolve crises competently at work.					
4.	I learn from my mistakes and improve the way I do my job.					

5.	I re-evaluate my performance and continually improve the way I do my work.					
6.	I effectively respond to feedback, even criticism.					
7.	I seek assistance at work when I need specific resources.					
8.	I approach managers when I need their support.					
9.	I use change at work as an opportunity for growth.					

Thank you for participating!

Please rate the below items according to the scale provided in each section.

