Journal of Applied Psychology
1999, Vol. 84, No. 6, 897-910

0021-9010/99/$3.00

Unemployed Individuals: Motives, Job-Search Competencies, and Job-Search Constraints as Predictors of Job Seeking and Reemployment

Connie R. Wanberg
University of Minnesota, Twin Cities Campus

Ruth Kanfer
Georgia Institute of Technology

Maria Rotundo
University of Minnesota, Twin Cities Campus

This study investigated 3 broad classes of individual-differences variables (job-search motives, competencies, and constraints) as predictors of job-search intensity among unemployed job seekers. Also assessed was the relationship between job-search intensity and reemployment success in a longitudinal context. Results show significant relationships between the predictors employment commitment, financial hardship, job-search self-efficacy, and motivation control and the outcome job-search intensity. Support was not found for a relationship between perceived job-search constraints and job-search intensity. Motivation control was highlighted as the only lagged predictor of job-search intensity over time for those who were continuously unemployed. Job-search intensity predicted Time 2 reemployment status for the sample as a whole, but not reemployment quality for those who found jobs over the study's duration.

Most of the psychological research on the topic of unemployment has focused on documenting the impact of unemployment (Price, 1992). This research has shown that unemployment tends to be a stressful life event, often leading to financial strain, depression, anxiety, and increased physical symptoms. In response to these findings, research has begun to focus on the job search as a predictor of reemployment. Research on this topic is timely and important because an increasing number of people are conducting multiple job searches during their work lives, both voluntarily (e.g., wanting to switch jobs) and involuntarily (e.g., organizational layoffs; Hall, 1996).

Connie R. Wanberg and Maria Rotundo, Industrial Relations Center, University of Minnesota, Twin Cities Campus; Ruth Kanfer, School of Psychology, Georgia Institute of Technology.

This research was funded by a University of Minnesota Grant-in-Aid and by a grant from the National Science Foundation (NSF/SBR9223357).

We thank Rich Arvey, John Kammeyer-Mueller, and Amy Enrooth for their helpful comments on a draft of this article.

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Connie R. Wanberg, Industrial Relations Center, University of Minnesota, 3-255 Carlson School of Management, 321-19th Avenue South, Minneapolis, Minnesota 55455, or to Ruth Kanfer, School of Psychology, 274 5th Street, Georgia Institute of Technology, Atlanta, Georgia 30332. Electronic mail may be sent to cwanberg@csom.umn.edu or to ruth.kanfer@psych.gatech.edu.

In this longitudinal study, we investigated the role of individual-differences variables in the job search and reemployment process in a sample of unemployed individuals. Although the results of several studies indicate a positive relationship between job-search behavior and reemployment (e.g., see Schwab, Rynes, & Aldag, 1987), less progress has been made in investigating the personal or situational predictors of job-search behavior (cf. Kanfer & Hulin, 1985; Kulik & Rowland, 1989; Wanberg, Watt, & Rumsey, 1996) and in assessing the relationship between job-search intensity (i.e., the frequency and scope of engagement in job-search behaviors such as looking at employment advertisements or calling potential employers) and reemployment quality.

Integrating prior theorizing and research in the psychological and economic job-search literature, we identified three broad classes of personal and situational predictors of job-search intensity. As shown in Figure 1, these personal and situational predictors are represented in terms of individual differences in (a) motives to search for a job (employment commitment and financial hardship); (b) job-search competencies (job-search self-efficacy, emotion control, and motivation control); and (c) job-search constraints (e.g., ill-health, child-care obligations). These variables were posited to be related to the intensity of an individual's job search, which was posited to predict reemployment and reemployment quality.

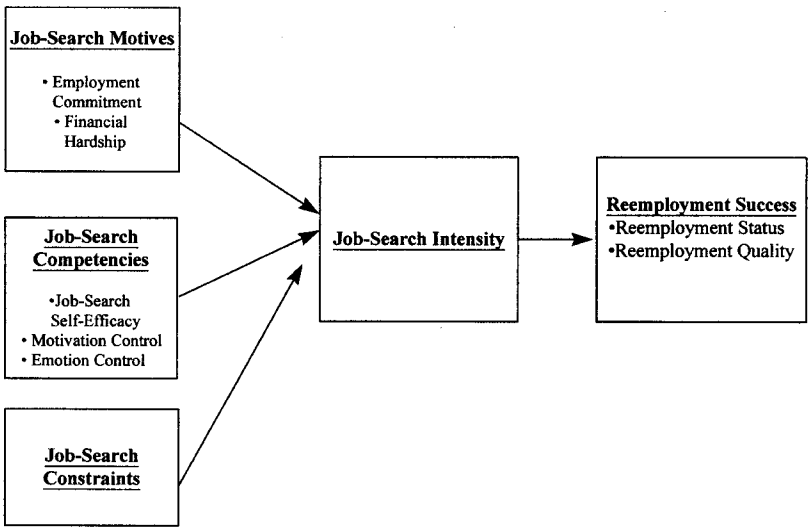

Figure 1. A heuristic framework depicting motive factors, job-search competencies, and job-search constraints as predictors of job-search intensity and reemployment success.

The conceptual model shown in Figure 1 provides a heuristic foundation for an investigation of the multiple predictors of job search and the job search–reemployment relation. As such, the framework is not intended to provide a comprehensive inventory of all variables within each class but to serve as a starting point for the coordinated investigation of disparate individual-differences determinants of job-search success and reemployment. The specific variables examined in this study were selected on the basis of theory and research. The proposed relationships between the components of our heuristic framework are described.

Job-Search Motives

Results of several studies have shown the influence of an individual's motives on the propensity to look for new employment (e.g., Caplan, Vinokur, Price, & van Ryn, 1989; Kinicki, 1989; Leana & Feldman, 1992). Specifically, research in both the psychological and economic literature suggests two prominent motive determinants of job-search intensity: the strength of an individual's commitment to employed work and an individual's level of financial hardship.

Employment Commitment

Employment commitment is an attitudinal variable that refers to the importance or centrality an individual places on employed work (cf. Feather & Bond, 1983). Battista and Thompson (1996) suggested that unemployed individuals for whom work is a central life interest are more motivated to maintain their work identity than are individuals for whom work is less important. Studying a sample of 250 unemployed individuals, Battista and Thompson found a positive relationship between individual differences in work centrality and job-search intensity. Investigations by Feather and O'Brien (1987), Rowley and Feather (1987), Ullah (1990), and Vinokur and Caplan (1987) also showed a similar positive relationship between employment commitment and job-search behavior.

Financial Hardship

In contrast to employment commitment, individual differences in the motive to work as a means of reducing economic hardship has its origins in situational conditions, and is typically inferred from current or anticipated life difficulties in living on one's current household income and associated financial problems related to maintaining adequate housing, food, and medical attention. Leana and Feldman (1995) suggested that individuals who have greater financial obligations or who do not have adequate financial resources during unemployment have a stronger need to replace their jobs more quickly.

Results of several studies provide support for the notion that financial hardship functions as a motive for unemployed individuals to look for work. For example, Vinokur and Caplan (1987) and Ullah (1990) reported that financial strain was positively related to job-search effort. Studies by Barron and Mellow (1981) and Barron and Gilley (1979) indicate that higher levels of unemployment insurance and a longer duration of unemployment insurance are related to lower job-search intensity and a longer period of unemployment. In this study, we assessed individual differences in reported financial hardship as an index of motive to work and examined this variable as a predictor of job-search intensity. On the basis of this literature, our first hypothesis

suggests positive relationships between our two motive variables and job-search intensity.

Hypothesis 1: Individual differences in employment commitment and financial hardship will be positively related to job-search intensity after job loss.

Job-Search Competencies

The term *competencies* has gained a foothold in the human resources literature as a means of describing traits, attributes, skills, or characteristics that individuals need to perform well in a job setting (cf. Kochanski, 1996). The concept of competencies is similarly useful in the job-search domain. In our study we investigated the role of three psychological competencies that we propose individuals need to conduct and sustain an effective job search: (a) job-search self-efficacy (i.e., having a strong sense of personal agency with respect to performing job-search activities); (b) motivation control (i.e., skill in goal setting, environmental management, and sustaining search efforts over time); and (c) emotion control (i.e., skill in overcoming search-related anxiety, fear, and apprehension).

Job-Search Self-Efficacy

The term *job-search self-efficacy* refers to an individual's confidence in his or her ability to successfully perform a variety of job-search activities. Extensive research in the job-search literature has shown that individuals who report low levels of job-search self-efficacy are less likely to look for work as intensely and are more likely to use ineffective search techniques than individuals with high levels of job-search self-efficacy (Eden & Aviram, 1993; Ellis & Taylor, 1983; Kanfer & Hulin, 1985; van Ryn & Vinokur, 1992). Consistent with these findings, Rife and Kilty (1990) found that unemployed workers who had stopped searching for a job reported significantly lower job-search self-efficacy than individuals who continued to actively search for a job.

Emotion Control and Motivation Control

Emotion control and motivation control are two types of motivational skills, or self-regulatory strategies, that individuals use to control their affect, cognitions, and behaviors during the process of goal execution (Kanfer & Heggestad, 1997). In contrast to self-efficacy judgments regarding one's perceived capability of engaging successfully in search behaviors, motivational skills pertain to individual differences in self-referent activities implemented during the search process. Individual differences in these skills, developed as a joint function of personality and experience, come into play during the job-search process as individuals confront challenges, obstacles, and frustrations. Kanfer and Heggestad proposed that individuals with *motivation control skill* sustain effort through techniques such as goal setting and environment management. In contrast, *emotion control skill* pertains to self-regulatory strategies to manage disruptive anxiety and worry. Motivation control is proposed to facilitate the job search by increasing goal setting and job-search persistence. Emotion control is proposed to facilitate job search by reducing cognitive distractions and goal withdrawal. Despite the strong theoretical relevance of motivation and emotion control to the context of job-search, we know of no research that has assessed these constructs in a job-search context. We therefore propose Hypothesis 2.

Hypothesis 2: Individual differences in job-search self-efficacy, motivation control, and emotion control will be positively related to job-search intensity after job loss.

Job-Search Constraints

Job-search constraint predictors are situational factors that might limit or restrict an individual's job-search efforts. For example, in a study of the job-search experiences of older employed individuals, Allan (1990) found that some individuals delayed their job searches because of illness. Many other situational factors (e.g., child-care and family responsibilities, transportation restrictions) may become obstacles to an individual's search efforts (Brooks & Buckner, 1996). Surprisingly, little attention has been given to examining the potential role of such circumstances (constraints) on job search. On the contrary, a fair amount of recognition has been given to the idea that situational constraints can affect performance in general, such as in a work setting (cf. Peters & O'Connor, 1980). In the present study, we explored the influence of seven individual constraints (poor health; child-care or family responsibilities; civic, school, religious, or other responsibilities; family conflicts; not having enough money to pay for job-search–related items, such as clothing, phone calls, and mailings; not having adequate transportation; and not having friends or family to discuss job possibilities with) and overall constraint magnitude on job-search intensity.

Hypothesis 3: The magnitude of perceived job-search constraints will be negatively related to job-search intensity.

Reemployment and Reemployment Quality

We also sought to assess the relationship between job-search intensity and successful reemployment. Two dimensions of reemployment success were investigated: (a) reemployment status at Time 2 of our study (still unemployed vs. employed in a new job) and (b) reemployment quality among individuals who had found reemployment by Time 2 of our study.

Results of several studies have shown that job-search intensity is positively associated with the probability or speed of obtaining reemployment (e.g., Barron & Mellow, 1981; Feather & O'Brien, 1987; Schmit, Amel, & Ryan,

1993; Wanberg, 1997; also see Schwab et al., 1987, for a review). On the basis of this research, we formulated our next hypothesis.

> *Hypothesis 4:* There will be a positive relationship between job-search intensity and reemployment.

The relationship between job-search intensity and reemployment quality is less clear than the relationship between job-search intensity and reemployment speed, and it has been studied less often (Prussia, Kinicki, & Bracker, 1993; Schwab et al., 1987). Schwab et al. suggested two competing possibilities with respect to search intensity and reemployment quality: Stronger search intensity may (a) allow individuals to identify more job options and choose the best alternative or (b) deter reemployment quality if the individual who searches intensely settles on the first job offered. Two studies published since the Schwab et al. review support the first contention: that job-search intensity may indeed be related to higher reemployment quality. Steffy, Shaw, and Noe (1989) found that graduating college students who reported the highest job satisfaction on reemployment also reported a higher level of investigating career and job opportunities, more interviews, and more job offers. Similar results were obtained by Wanberg (1997), who found that higher levels of job-search behavior during unemployment were related to higher levels of job satisfaction once reemployed.

In this study we included three different assessments of reemployment quality: job satisfaction, job improvement, and intention to turnover. Job satisfaction represents an attitudinal assessment of reemployment quality. Job improvement represents a comparison of the new job to one's job before unemployment in terms of several job characteristics (e.g., nearness to home, wages, job security, etc.). Finally, intention to turnover is an assessment of behavioral intention to leave the job. For example, it may be that individuals who engaged in an intense job search will be less likely to indicate an intention to leave the new job (e.g., "I worked so hard to get this; I can't leave the job already"). This was the basis of our fifth hypothesis.

> *Hypothesis 5:* Among reemployed individuals, job-search intensity will be positively related to job satisfaction and job improvement indicators of reemployment quality and negatively related to intention to leave the new job.

Continuously Unemployed Individuals

The final objective of this study was to examine the predictors of job-search intensity among individuals who were still unemployed at the 3-month follow-up. Persistence in the job search, continued evidence of job-search intensity, or both is particularly important for individuals who remain unemployed for a long time. Early identification of factors that may contribute to lower levels of job-search intensity after a period of unemployment and failed attempts to obtain reemployment has practical implications for designing programs that attenuate the negative psychological consequences of longer term unemployment.

Price and Vinokur (1995) noted that

> searching for a new job is a long-term, uncertain coping activity that requires the use of complex strategies, substantial self-control, and self-regulation skill, all of it punctuated by discouragements and setbacks that present major motivational challenges of their own. (p. 192)

Although it can be anticipated that all previously identified predictors of job-search intensity continue to contribute to job-search intensity after a period of unemployment, Kanfer and Heggestad's (1997) conceptualization suggests that motivation control would be an essential job-search competency for sustaining job-search intensity over time. Consistent with the learning context, individual differences in motivation control are proposed to be important through the job-search process. During the initial phase of unemployment and job search, individual differences in motivation control largely augment a "strong" situation in which environmental supports for obtaining reemployment are typically ample (e.g., job placement assistance, family support, etc.). However, as unemployment continues, individuals typically experience repeated failure to obtain employment and diminishing environmental support for search effort. In this "weak" and discouraging situation, motivation control is expected to be critical for maintenance of job-search intensity. This expectation is reflected in our last hypothesis.

> *Hypothesis 6:* Among individuals who remain unemployed, individual differences in motivation control are expected to be positively related to continued (Time 2) job-search intensity.

Method

Participants and Procedure

Unemployed participants were recruited in 1997 from two Work Force Centers in Minnesota. Work Force Centers are one-stop public service agencies that combine reemployment insurance, job service, rehabilitation services, and job training partnership agencies. All individuals filing for unemployment insurance are required to register with a Work Force Center, so the sample was not limited to users of the facilities. The two specific offices used for data collection were chosen in consultation with the Minnesota Department of Economic Security to enhance the diversity and generalizability of the results. One office was an inner-city office in Minneapolis and the other was located in a suburb.

Trained interviewers wearing identification badges approached individuals and asked them to complete a survey about their unemployment experiences. The interviewers screened out people who were employed, on temporary layoff, or unemployed for less than 2 weeks or more than 5 months. Individuals who were eligible

and interested in participating in the study were asked to complete a survey at the Work Force Center. Individuals who were interested in completing a survey but who did not have time to fill one out at the center were asked to return their survey by mail. A total of 2,450 individuals were approached. Of those individuals, 1,702 were not eligible for the study. Of the 748 eligible individuals, 603 (80.6%) completed surveys. Another 13 individuals completed surveys but were not counted as respondents because their surveys were either missing too much data or the responses appeared to be confused. All individuals who completed surveys were paid $5.

Three months after the date that individuals were recruited into the study, the Time 1 participants were sent a follow-up survey in the mail. A 3-month follow-up was chosen to correspond with the average spell of unemployment in the state of Minnesota, which was 13.0 weeks in both 1995 and 1996 (Minnesota Department of Economic Security, 1997a). To increase the response rate during this second time wave, a $5 incentive was offered to respondents and two reminder surveys were sent to nonrespondents. A total of 296 completed surveys were returned, representing 49% of the total Time 1 sample. The data from 4 individuals were removed from the final sample because they responded more than 2 months after their survey had been sent out.

Of the 292 respondents in the final sample, 114 were women and 178 were men. The mean age was 41.1 years (SD = 10.98). Most respondents were White (81.4%), whereas 14.1% were African American, 1.7% were Asian American, 1.4% were Native American, 0.7% were Hispanic, and 0.7% were "other." Almost half (47.2%) of the respondents were married. The average education level was 14.6 years (SD = 2.02). The participants had worked in a variety of occupations before becoming unemployed, including professional, technical, and managerial (n = 152); clerical and sales (n = 53); service (n = 30); agricultural and fishery (n = 6); processing (n = 11); machine trades (n = 17); general factory work (n = 21); structural work (n = 12); and miscellaneous (n = 20; some individuals indicated that they more than one occupational category). About half of the individuals in the sample (n = 150, 51.4%) were still unemployed at Time 2, and 142 (48.6%) had become reemployed.

Measures

The job-search motive, job-search competency, job-search constraint, and job-search intensity variables were assessed at Time 1 when all participants were unemployed. We assessed the reemployment status of our study participants at Time 2. Job-search intensity was assessed again at this time for individuals who were still unemployed, and the quality of employment was assessed for individuals who had found jobs. Sample items from each scale used are shown in the Appendix. When the scale was newly developed for use in this study, we list all items.

Job-search motives. Employment commitment was assessed with an eight-item measure developed by Rowley and Feather (1987; all items reprinted by Feather, 1990, p. 88). This measure evaluates the degree to which an individual wants to be employed. Respondents rated each item on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). Because Rowley and Feather developed their measure for Australian participants, we modified one item in the scale for appropriate use in the United States. Higher scores indicated greater employment commitment. The coefficient alpha for this scale was .76.

A three-item measure was used to assess perceived financial hardship (Vinokur & Caplan, 1987; Vinokur & Schul, 1997). The items were rated on 5-point Likert scales ranging from 1 (*not at all difficult*) to 5 (*extremely difficult or impossible*). This measure reflects the extent to which individuals had difficulty living on their current household income. Research by Ullah (1990) and Whelan (1992) suggests that this type of measurement of financial hardship is more comprehensive than assessments of family income levels, given that two families with the same income in the past year may have highly discrepant abilities to meet current financial demands. The coefficient alpha for this scale was .85.

Job-search competencies. Job-search self-efficacy was evaluated with two measures. The first scale was a six-item measure developed by the Institute for Social Research (van Ryn & Vinokur, 1991). These items focused on individuals' judgments about their competence at job seeking. The second scale was based on four items from the Solberg et al. (1994) Career Search Efficacy Scale. The items measure confidence in making decisions associated with one's career, such as identifying and evaluating what one values in a job. The efficacy items are rated on 5-point scales ranging from 1 (*not at all confident*) to 5 (*highly confident*). The two scales were summed together because of their high intercorrelation (r = .65) and because a factor analysis did not separate the two scales. The coefficient alpha for this summed scale was .91.

Emotion and motivation control were assessed with 23 items developed for this study. The two scales were developed and refined following approaches recommended by Hinkin (1998). First, items were generated by following a theoretical framework that specified the content domain for each construct. We developed the items using a deductive approach guided by theory and research in self-regulation (e.g., Kanfer & Heggestad, 1997; Kuhl, 1985). Emotion control was defined as cognitions, behavior, and affect concerned with search-related emotions (e.g., anxiety). Motivation control was defined as cognitions, behavior, and affect directed at sustaining search effort. Two expert raters (outside the project) rated each item as being reflective of either emotion control or motivation control. Six items were dropped because of disagreement over item classification. Exploratory factor analysis was used to further refine the scale, and, based on these results, six additional items were dropped because of cross-loadings greater than .40 between the two factors. Confirmatory factor analysis of the final two scales (six items for emotion control and five for motivation control) showed that the goodness-of-fit index (GFI) for the two-factor model was .92 and that the item t values were all significant (LISREL 8.14; Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1993). The GFI was substantially lower, indicative of a poor fit, when all the items from the two scales were loaded onto one factor (GFI = .79). The items from the two scales were rated on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (*not at all true of me*) to 5 (*extremely true of me*). Higher scores indicate greater emotion or motivation control. The alphas were .81 for emotion control and .74 for motivation control.

Job-search constraints. Job-search constraints were assessed with seven items developed for use in this study. Individuals were asked to indicate the extent to which seven different external factors had interfered with their job search. These factors were culled from the literature (e.g., Allan, 1990; Brooks & Buckner,

1996) and from impromptu comments made in previous surveys conducted by Connie Wanberg that indicated that a given factor had reduced the time and effort an individual could devote to his or her job search. The items were rated on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (*not at all*) to 5 (*a great deal*) or 1 (*no negative influence at all*) to 5 (*extreme negative influence*). The items were summed to form a total, with higher scores indicating more job-search constraints. The coefficient alpha for this scale was .73.

Job-search intensity. Job-search intensity was assessed with a 12-item scale developed by Blau (1994). Individuals were asked how frequently (1 = *never [0 times]* to 5 = *very frequently [at least 10 times]*) they had engaged in or used a variety of job-search behaviors and sources (e.g., "Prepared/revised your résumé") in the past 2 weeks. One item of Blau's scale was replaced ("Used current within company resources") because it was aimed at employed job seekers. Another item was added to Blau's scale ("Used the Worldwide Web or other computer services to locate job openings") to capture a job-search activity that has become more common in the past few years. High scores indicate higher levels of job-search intensity. The coefficient alphas for this scale were .82 at Time 1 and .86 at Time 2.

Reemployment success. Reemployment status at Time 2 was assessed by asking individuals to indicate whether they were currently unemployed (coded as 0) or currently employed (coded as 1). Three dimensions of reemployment quality were assessed for individuals who had found jobs by Time 2 of our study. First, job satisfaction was assessed with one item answered on a 4-point scale ("All in all, how satisfied would you say you are with your new job?"; Quinn & Staines, 1979). Job improvement was assessed with a list of 11 items adapted from Burke (1986) asking individuals to compare their new job to the job they had before they became unemployed on several largely objective dimensions, such as nearness to home, working hours, wages, and fringe benefits; one additional item was also included that asked the individual to make an overall comparison between the two jobs. Individuals responded to the job improvement items on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*worse than my old job*) to 3 (*same as my old job*) to 5 (*better than my old job*). All items were summed to form a scale total. High scores indicate that the new job is better on more dimensions. The coefficient alpha for this scale was .91. Finally, intention to turnover was assessed with one item ("How likely is it that you will actively look for another job in the next year?"; Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, & Klesh, 1983). Responses to this item ranged from 1 (*not at all likely*) to 7 (*extremely likely*).

In support of our two 1-item job quality measures (i.e., job satisfaction and intention to turnover), Wanous, Reichers, and Hudy (1997) suggested that one-item measures may be appropriate when time or money constraints make longer measures difficult and the constructs measured are not ambiguous or complex. Although it was a difficult trade-off, we wanted to judiciously reduce the length of our follow-up survey by reducing two of our three job quality measures to maximize our return rate. Of our many measures, we felt that there was the most support for going with one-item measures of job satisfaction and intention to turnover. Specifically, research by Wanous et al. suggests that the construct of overall job satisfaction may be adequately represented by a single item. Their meta-analysis demonstrated a high correlation between single-item measures of overall job satisfaction and multiple-item measures. We also surmised that intention to turnover could be adequately represented by one item (i.e., "How likely is it that you will actively look for another job in the next year?"). Despite this rationalization, we think it noteworthy that multiple-item measures of these variables would have been preferable and that the results for these two variables should be viewed with appropriate caution.

Control variables. Gender, age, race, education, and Time 1 length of unemployment were assessed for use as control variables. Gender was coded as follows: 0 = male and 1 = female. Race was coded as follows: 0 = White and 1 = minority. Age was continuous and was assessed with a fill-in-the-blank question. For education, individuals were asked to circle the highest year of education they had completed (1 to 17+). For Time 1 length of unemployment, individuals were asked to indicate the number of months, weeks, or days that they had been unemployed and were provided with a calendar for assistance. This information was coded into number of days unemployed.

These control variables have been implicated as potentially important in job-search and unemployment research. According to Leana and Feldman (1992), research has demonstrated that women, minorities, individuals with less education, and individuals who are older may face longer periods of unemployment. The duration of unemployment (i.e., the number of days unemployed) may also play an important role in the job-search process. As unemployment length increases, individuals are more likely to have higher levels of financial strain and anxiety (cf. Warr & Jackson, 1984), and they may change their search intensity or patterns (cf. Barber, Daly, Giannantonio, & Phillips, 1994). Length of unemployment was controlled through study design by restricting participation to individuals who had been unemployed for 2 weeks or longer (so that they would have had time to begin their job searches) and for less than 5 months (which is, in the state where these data were collected, moving into a duration of unemployment that is nearly twice the average length of unemployment). Yet, length of unemployment was also statistically controlled, given that some variability on this factor still existed.

Assessment of Nonrespondent Differences

We made an effort to assess differences between respondents (n = 603) and nonrespondents (n = 129) to the Time 1 survey. All eligible individuals, whether interested in participating in the study or not, were asked two short questions and their gender was noted. The questions concerned the last year of education they completed and how many hours during the last week they spent on job-search activities. Only a small percentage (2.5%) of the eligible individuals refused to respond to one or both of the questions. There were no significant differences between the Time 1 respondents and nonrespondents on gender, education, or recent job-search behavior.

The Time 2 respondents (n = 292) were compared with the individuals who did not respond at Time 2 or who were excluded because of late response (n = 311) on the variables assessed at Time 1. Some mean differences were found between respondents and nonrespondents on the variables assessed at Time 1. Respondents were older (M = 41.1 vs. 34.6 years), $t(601) = -7.89$, and more educated (M = 14.6 vs. 13.1 years), $t(601) = -8.67$, than nonrespondents ($p < .001$). Respondents were more likely to be

female, $\chi^2(1, N = 603) = 7.33$, and White, $\chi^2(1, N = 600) = 86.72$; specifically, 56.2% of the women and 63% of the Whites responded at Time 2, compared with 44.5% of the men and 24% of the minorities.[1] Finally, respondents had less financial hardship ($M = 2.8$ vs. 3.1), $t(601) = 3.82$, fewer job-search constraints ($M = 1.7$ vs. 2.2), $t(601) = 7.25$, and less job-search intensity ($M = 2.6$ vs. 2.9), $t(601) = 4.22$, $p < .001$. The reported means for financial hardship, job-search constraints, and job-search intensity reflect the total scale scores divided by the number of items in the scale.

Despite the several mean differences between the respondents and nonrespondents, the nonresponse did not appear to have biased the relationships reported between our Time 1 study variables. For example, we later report the results of our Time 1 variables as predictors of Time 1 job-search behavior for the individuals who responded to both our Time 1 and Time 2 surveys (e.g., see Table 2). We also computed this Time 1 regression equation with data from 603 respondents (the larger Time 1 sample without Time 2 dropouts eliminated). Identical predictor variables were significant and nonsignificant in the larger sample. There was one difference on the demographic variables with the larger sample: Instead of education predicting job-search behavior, ethnicity was significant in the equation. The significance of ethnicity in the larger sample is not inconsistent with our findings with the smaller sample, as ethnicity was also significant in the first step of our regression equation shown in Table 2. Overall, the conclusions that would have been drawn on the Time 1 data without the sample attrition (regarding the predictors of job-search behavior) were virtually identical to the conclusions we drew for the smaller sample. Unfortunately, it was not possible, with the available data, to assess whether nonrespondents were different on Time 2 outcome variables or to assess whether the Time 2 variable relationships would differ without attrition.

Overview of Study Analyses

Mean substitution was used (Roth, 1994) to replace missing values for a small percentage of participants who missed items in their surveys. None of the items was missed by more than 2% ($n = 6$) of the participants. Two individuals did not complete information about their race. Because we could not use mean substitution for this variable, all Time 1 analyses including race are missing two observations (thus, sample sizes ranged from 290 to 292). At Time 2, only analyses including race for individuals who were reemployed are missing two observations, as the 2 individuals missing race were reemployed at Time 2 (thus, the sample size for reemployed individuals ranged from 140 to 142).

In the Results section we present three different sets of analyses. First, we discuss job-search behavior and reemployment for 292 respondents, our entire sample of Time 1 and Time 2 respondents. We then discuss reemployment quality for 140 respondents or only for our reemployed individuals. Finally, we present data on job-search behavior for our continuously unemployed participants at Time 2, a sample of 150. Hierarchical multiple regression was used in the analyses when the outcome measure was continuous in nature (e.g., when predicting job-search intensity or quality of reemployment). Hierarchical logistic regression was used to analyze the data when the outcome measure was dichotomous (e.g., when predicting reemployment status). The control variables were entered in Step 1 of the equations, and the predictor variables in Step 2, to assess the relative contribution of the study's variables over and beyond the demographic variables.

Results

Table 1 shows the means, standard deviations, coefficient alphas, and correlations among the variables used in this study. Correlations between the predictor variables were generally low to moderate, with one exception. Job-search self-efficacy and emotion control were correlated .51.

Prediction of Time 1 Job-Search Intensity

Hypotheses 1 and 2 proposed that higher levels of the job-search motive and job-search competency variables would be associated with higher job-search intensity at Time 1. As shown in Table 2, these hypotheses were supported, except for emotion control skill. Higher levels of employment commitment, financial hardship, job-search self-efficacy, and motivation control skill were associated with higher levels of job-search intensity.

Hypothesis 3 addressed the relationship between perceived job-search constraints and job-search intensity. As shown in Table 2, the magnitude of job-search constraints was not significantly related to job-search intensity. To further explore the possibility that one type of constraint might importantly affect the intensity variables while other constraints do not, we recomputed the regression equation shown in Table 2 to assess whether individual job-search constraint items were related to job-search intensity. None of the seven individual job-search constraints was associated with job-search intensity. We also examined the possibility that job-search constraints might exert an interactive effect with the other predictor variables. For example, it is possible that the relationship between other predictors and job-search intensity might be changed by the presence of job-search constraints (e.g., a person with strong employment commitment might show lower job-search intensity, rather than higher job-search intensity, if he or she has strong job-search constraints). Five interaction terms were computed, multiplying the job-search constraints total by the other five main predictors. The interaction terms were added into a last step of the final equation shown in Table 2.

---

[1] We specifically sought to include individuals in our sample from an inner-city office whose clients were largely of a non-White ethnicity to increase the generalizability of our sample and to expand the literature base, which tends to have low minority representation. Our final sample had a larger percentage of minorities (17.9%) than the percentage of minority unemployment insurance claimants in Minnesota for Calendar Year 1996 (9.1%; Minnesota Department of Economic Security, 1997a). As a comparison, in 1996, 37% of the unemployment insurance recipients in the United States were minority individuals.

Table 1
Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations, and Coefficient Alphas for Time 1 and Time 2 Variables

Variable	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
1. Gender (0 = male, 1 = female)	0.39	0.49	—																
2. Age	41.15	10.98	−07	—															
3. Race (0 = White, 1 = minority)	0.18	0.39	−01	−18*	—														
4. Education	14.56	2.02	−09	23*	−32*	—													
5. T1 days unemployed	51.88	37.78	01	−01	14*	−13*	—												
6. T1 employment commitment	3.56	0.74	−04	−02	14*	−14*	04	*76*											
7. T1 financial hardship	2.81	1.23	02	03	23*	−17*	−02	28*	*85*										
8. T1 job-search efficacy	4.04	0.76	−02	05	05	16*	−13*	13*	−12*	*91*									
9. T1 emotion control	3.73	0.78	−05	10	11	08	−10	−11	−17*	51*	*81*								
10. T1 motivation control	3.12	0.83	04	01	05	11	01	22*	09	28*	−02	*74*							
11. T1 job-search constraints	1.70	0.71	−05	−22*	31*	−26*	14*	20*	39*	−24*	−29*	05	*73*						
12. T1 job-search intensity	2.61	0.70	−08	00	14*	12*	−03	32*	22*	35*	11	38*	10	*82*					
13. T2 employment status	0.49	0.50	01	−09	−08	02	00	09	−02	03	−01	−06	−08	17*	—				
Continuously unemployed																			
14. T2 job-search intensity	2.56	0.74	−10	−01	19*	12	−01	25*	03	29*	15	39*	05	55*	—	*86*			
Reemployed individuals																			
15. T2 job improvement	3.72	0.77	13	−09	02	−05	00	−09	−03	22*	06	02	−04	07	—	—	*91*		
16. T2 job satisfaction	3.40	0.70	08	−03	−01	−05	11	05	−12	25*	07	09	−12	01	—	—	63*	—	
17. T2 intention to turnover	3.16	2.12	−14	06	21*	03	−05	−08	20*	−22*	00	03	18*	14	—	—	−54*	−58*	—

Note. Means and standard deviations for Variables 6–12 and 14–17 were divided by the number of items in the scale to aid interpretation. All scales, with the exception of T2 job satisfaction (possible range was 1–4) and T2 intention to turnover (possible range was 1–7), were answered on 5-point scales, and thus their means could theoretically range from 1 to 5. *ns* = 290–292 for Variables 1–13, *n* = 150 for Variable 14 (continuously unemployed), and *ns* = 140–142 for Variables 15–17 (reemployed). T2 employment status (0 = unemployed, 1 = reemployed). Decimals in correlations have been omitted. Alphas appear in italics on the diagonal. T1 = Time 1; T2 = Time 2.
* $p < .05$.

The interaction terms did not result in a significant R^2 change statistic, indicating that they did not contribute to the equation above and beyond the main effects. In summary, our analyses showed no significant relationship between job-search constraints and job-search intensity.

Table 2
Unemployed Individuals at Time 1: Predictors of Job-Search Intensity

Predictor	Time 1 job-search intensity (β)	
	Step 1	Step 2
Control variables		
Gender (0 = male, 1 = female)	−.06	−.06
Age	−.01	−.03
Race (0 = White, 1 = minority)	.20**	.07
Education	.18**	.15**
Days unemployed	−.03	.00
Predictor variables		
T1 employment commitment		.19**
T1 financial hardship		.17**
T1 job-search efficacy		.25**
T1 emotion control		.04
T1 motivation control		.24**
T1 job-search constraints		.06
R	.23**	.56**
Adjusted R^2	.04**	.29**
R^2 change	.06**	.26**

Note. n = 290. Step 2 shows the standardized beta weights with all variables in the equation simultaneously. T1 = Time 1.
* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Prediction of Reemployment and Reemployment Quality

Hypothesis 4 predicted a relationship between job-search intensity and reemployment status at Time 2. As expected, higher job-search intensity was associated with increased reemployment at Time 2 (see the second column of Table 3). One demographic variable was a significant predictor of reemployment: White respondents were more likely than minority respondents to be reemployed at Time 2.

Hypothesis 5 predicted a relationship between the job-search intensity variables and reemployment quality at Time 2 for individuals who were reemployed at Time 2. The last six columns of Table 3 show the predictors of job satisfaction, job improvement, and intentions to turnover. Job-search intensity was not significant in these equations.

Finally, although not formally hypothesized, the framework shown in Figure 1 suggests that job-search intensity may act as a mediator between the motive, competency, and constraint predictors and reemployment success. We followed the procedure outlined by Baron and Kenny (1986) to assess the possibility that job-search intensity acts as a mediator between the predictors and reemployment or reemployment quality, but no mediational relationships were

Table 3
Job-Search Intensity as Predictors of Reemployment and Quality of Reemployment

Predictor	Time 2 reemployment (b)		Time 2 job satisfaction (β)		Time 2 job improvement (β)		Time 2 intentions to turnover (β)	
Gender (0 = male, 1 = female)	−.03	.02	.10	.10	.13	.13	−.14	−.14
Age	−.02	−.02	−.01	−.02	−.07	−.08	.05	.05
Race (0 = White, 1 = minority)	−.51	−.75*	−.03	−.04	.01	−.01	.22*	.21*
Education	.02	−.01	−.04	−.05	−.06	−.07	.09	.08
Days unemployed	.00	.00	.11	.12	−.02	−.00	−.08	−.07
Time 1 job-search intensity		.04**		.04		.10		.07
Classification accuracy	55%	58%						
Logistic regression model χ^{2a}	5.07 (5)	15.47 (6)*						
χ^2	5.07 (5)	10.41 (1)**						
R			.16	.17	.17	.19	.28	.28
Adjusted R^2			.00	.00	.00	.00	.04	.04
R^2 change			.03	.00	.03	.01	.08	.00

Note. The first two columns show logistic regression equations predicting Time 2 reemployment (0 = unemployed, 1 = reemployed; n = 290). The coefficients in these equations are unstandardized logistic regression coefficients. The last six columns show multiple regression analyses predicting reemployment quality for individuals who were reemployed at Time 2 (n = 140). The coefficients in these last six equations are standardized beta weights.
[a] The model chi-square statistic is logistic regression's analogue of the global F test used in ordinary regression models. Its significance indicates that at least one of the coefficients in the equation was nonzero (DeMaris, 1992).
* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$

established. Specifically, Baron and Kenny stated that to qualify as a mediator, the proposed mediator has to be related to the outcome variables. Job-search intensity was related only to the reemployment outcome, so job-search intensity could not mediate the relationships of the predictor variables on reemployment quality. Baron and Kenny specified that for a predictor variable's effects to be mediated, the predictor must be associated with the outcome variable when the mediator is not in the regression equation. None of the predictor variables in this study was significantly related to reemployment. Overall, a possible mediation of the predictors included in this study through job-search intensity for the outcome of reemployment was not supported.

Table 4
Continuously Unemployed Individuals: Predictors of Time 2 Job-Search Intensity

Predictor	Time 2 job-search intensity (β)	
Control variables		
Gender (0 = male, 1 = female)	−.07	−.05
Age	.02	.02
Race (0 = White, 1 = minority)	.26**	.16
Education	.18*	.13
Days unemployed	−.01	.01
Predictor variables		
T1 employment commitment		.14
T1 financial hardship		−.04
T1 job-search efficacy		.11
T1 emotion control		.01
T1 motivation control		.28**
T1 job-search constraints		.06
R	.28*	.48**
Adjusted R^2	.04*	.17**
R^2 change	.08*	.15**

Note. n = 150. Step 2 shows standardized beta weights (β) with all variables in the equation simultaneously. T1 = Time 1.
* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Continuously Unemployed Individuals

Our last hypothesis (Hypothesis 6) suggested that motivation control would be positively related to continued job-search intensity for individuals who were still unemployed at Time 2 (n = 150). Table 4 shows the Time 1 predictors of Time 2 job-search intensity. As predicted, individuals with higher motivation control at Time 1 exhibited higher levels of job-search intensity at Time 2 of our study. Table 4 shows that Time 1 motivation control was the only predictor that had a lagged effect over time on Time 2 job search.[2]

Discussion

Our findings provide clear evidence that individual differences in motives and psychological competencies offer

[2] Motivation control was also assessed in our Time 2 survey, although we did not include it in the study because of the marginal benefit of reporting Time 2 cross-sectional relationships when the Time 1 cross-sectional relationships were already reported. Instead, attention at Time 2 was focused on the methodologically superior (from a monomethod bias standpoint) Time 1 predictor–Time 2 outcome longitudinal relationships. However, we thank an anonymous reviewer for pointing out that it may be of interest to note that motivation control decreased over time from Time 1 (M = 3.2, SD = 0.84) to Time 2 (M = 3.0, SD = 0.87) for the 150 individuals who remained unemployed ($p < .05$). Motivation control at Time 1 was correlated .56 with motivation control at Time 2 ($p < .001$).

an incremental explanation of individual differences in job-search intensity, above that obtained for individual differences in demographic measures alone. In turn, individual differences in job-search intensity showed incremental predictive validity, beyond that of demographic measures, for reemployment 3 months after initial contact. These field results indicate the importance of psychological factors in predicting job-search behavior and reemployment and provide support for an individual-differences conceptualization of these person and situation variables.

Our results show that education level, employment commitment, financial hardship, job-search efficacy, and motivation control skill were positively associated with job-search intensity at Time 1. Among individuals who remained unemployed 3 months after initial contact, motivation control was the only nondemographic factor that predicted sustained job-search intensity. These results indicate that strong self-regulatory skill in sustaining motivation for job search via activities such as goal setting, planning, and cognitive rehearsal may be more important than an individual's search efficacy or financial hardship in sustaining overall search intensity over time. This finding suggests that interventions that also strengthen motivation control may be important. Support for this idea can be drawn from the JOBS project at the University of Michigan (cf. Caplan et al., 1989; Vinokur, Price, & Schul, 1995). This successful program for unemployed job seekers was designed not only to teach job-search skills but also to specifically enhance participants' ability to maintain motivation and persistence in their job search and to be prepared and ready to cope with setbacks that may occur. The aspects of the program that are targeted toward inoculation against setbacks and persistence over time were found by Vinokur and Schul (1997) to result in lowered depression among intervention participants who found and then lost a job (when compared with a control group of individuals who experienced the same setback).

Contrary to our expectations, no significant relationship was obtained between the magnitude of job-search constraints and job-search intensity. Given the paucity of prior research on this topic, and the reasonable likelihood that such constraints might affect an individual's search efforts, our findings are probably best interpreted as inconclusive. For example, it is possible that the relationship between these variables in this study may have been attenuated because of a restriction of range. The base rate for reported job-search constraints in this study was lower than desirable for research purposes (the mean item score for job-search constraints was 1.70, $SD = 0.71$, with the response scale ranging from 1 to 5). Three potential explanations for this low base rate are as follows: (a) Few individuals in our sample faced the particular constraints we identified; (b) individuals were reluctant to report search constraints; or (c) these constraints would show up more potently in another sample (e.g., a sample of welfare-to-work job seekers; cf. Brooks & Buckner, 1996). To address these potential limitations, future researchers should include objective measures of constraints in a stratified population survey that does not depend on individuals visiting a job service office.

Future researchers should also attempt to develop a comprehensive taxonomy of factors that act to impede the job search for some individuals and to collect information on the base rate of these factors. Although our scale included several factors that appeared both theoretically and experientially to be important constraints on job-search intensity, a formal critical-incidents study and content analysis of situational constraints relevant to job-search conducted on a randomized sample of unemployed job seekers would be informative (see Peters & O'Connor, 1980, for an application of this method in developing a taxonomy of situational resource variables relevant to performance in the workplace). It is also possible that the constraints on job-search intensity are better conceptualized in terms of reemployment rather than job search. Dayton (1981), for example, found that young job seekers viewed a number of factors, including race, age, and work qualifications, as significant barriers to their reemployment efforts. In a study of job seekers older than 40, Allan (1990) found that age and general economic conditions were perceived to be obstacles to reemployment. Research directed at assessing whether such perceived barriers influence job search is recommended.

Consistent with other research (Barron & Mellow, 1981; Feather & O'Brien, 1987; Schmit et al., 1993; Wanberg, 1997), our results show a significant relationship between job-search intensity and reemployment. Our level of prediction of whether an individual was unemployed or reemployed at Time 2 of our study resulted in a 58% classification accuracy, only 7% better than what one would get by classifying all of the participants in the most prevalent group (in this case, 51% of our participants were reemployed). This level of prediction, although small, is meaningful when the cost of unemployment insurance on a weekly basis to a state and to employers is considered. For example, in Minnesota, 127,397 valid new claims were filed in 1997, and the average dollar amount paid out to each individual was $230 a week (maximum = $331 a week). A total of $367,216,944 was paid out in unemployment insurance in Minnesota in 1997 (Minnesota Department of Economic Security, 1997b). Using the finding that job-search intensity is related to reemployment as a means of increasing reemployment speed of even a small number of unemployed individuals could lead to substantial savings on unemployment insurance costs and would be tremendously useful for employers facing labor market shortages. One suggestion based on this finding is that job-search counselors tell job seekers that job-search intensity does pay off—those individuals who look harder for jobs are more likely to find jobs sooner. The counselors should encourage individ-

uals to treat their job search as a full-time job (e.g., 40 hr a week). Although this sounds like overly simplistic advice, many job seekers do not realize that they should spend that amount of time on their job search (Minnesota Department of Economic Security, 1996). Future researchers should attempt to increase the prediction rate of reemployment status to a higher level and to find variables other than job-search intensity that are related to speed of reemployment. Relatively unstudied factors include the role of interviewing skills (cf. Caldwell & Burger, 1998) and methods of job search being used (e.g., relying on employment advertisements vs. networking) as predictors of reemployment.

Note, however, that during periods when there is a healthy economy, most people who want jobs find jobs. The important question during these periods for most unemployed people is whether they are able to find a satisfactory job, one that they want to stay at, after a period of unemployment. Our finding of a nonsignificant relationship between job-search intensity and our reemployment quality variables suggests that other factors, such as an individual's job-search strategy or reemployment goals, are more important determinants of reemployment quality than is job-search intensity. For example, one job-search strategy might be to choose a "reservation wage" (i.e., the amount of money one wishes to make in a new job) and to turn down jobs that offer less money (cf. Barron & Gilley, 1979). Other individuals may not feel comfortable with this strategy and may take the first job that is offered to them. More in-depth examinations of the factors associated with reemployment quality, including assessments of individuals' decision-making strategies, reemployment goals, and other relevant factors such as reason for unemployment (e.g., layoff, fired, quit, etc.), are needed.

Although the pattern of results obtained provides general support for the proposed individual-differences framework, a potential limitation of this study relates to the reliance on self-report measures. For psychological constructs such as job-search efficacy and financial hardship, self-report methods of measurement are common and indeed often the only practical way to assess individual differences in factors that develop as the result of personality, situation, and experience. For demographic (e.g., age) and reemployment variables, we relied on self-report because we had no reason to believe that individuals would misreport this information. Except for the constraint measure, the range of scores obtained on predictor and job intensity variables suggest no evidence of a trend toward responding in a "socially desirable" manner on these measures. A second consideration pertains to possible consistency bias in responses. Although this possibility exists with respect to the Time 1 analyses of predictors of job-search intensity, the overall pattern of results shows differential influence of predictors on search intensity variables. The use of a longitudinal design for evaluating search intensity–reemployment relations, and predictor–search intensity relationships among the still-unemployed, further attenuates this concern.

In conclusion, looking for and finding a job is not an easy task for many individuals, even when the economy is healthy. Research assessing the predictors of job search and reemployment success is important from the perspective of the job seeker, hiring organizations, and state programs that provide unemployment insurance. The primary contribution of this study lies in its use of a diverse sample of unemployed individuals and its investigation of several important but previously unstudied (or understudied) constructs in the domain of job search (specifically, emotional control skill, motivation control skill, and job-search constraints). Future researchers might more broadly operationalize the construct domains (i.e., job-search motives, job-search competencies, and job-search constraints) that we focused on in this study. For example, Kinicki's (1989) motivational forces to pursue a *non*work role might provide supplemental information to the two motive variables assessed in this study. Similarly, additional job-search competencies may be considered. Overall, the predictive validity of particular variables studied from a differential psychology framework in this research suggests a potentially fruitful avenue for future investigations of other person and situational factors that may also affect job transition, job search, and reemployment success.

References

Allan, P. (1990). Looking for work after forty: Job search experiences of older unemployed managers and professionals. *Journal of Employment Counseling, 27,* 113–121.

Barber, A. E., Daly, C. L., Giannantonio, C. M., & Phillips, J. M. (1994). Job search activities: An examination of changes over time. *Personnel Psychology, 47,* 739–765.

Baron, R. M., & Kenny, D. A. (1986). The moderator–mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 51,* 1173–1182.

Barron, J. M., & Gilley, O. W. (1979). The effect of unemployment insurance on the search process. *Industrial and Labor Relations Review, 32,* 363–366.

Barron, J. M., & Mellow, W. (1981). Changes in labor force status among the unemployed. *Journal of Human Resources, 16,* 427–441.

Battista, M., & Thompson, D. E. (1996, April). *Motivation for reemployment: The role of self-efficacy and identity.* Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology, San Diego, CA.

Blau, G. (1994). Testing a two-dimensional measure of job search behavior. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 59,* 288–312.

Brooks, M. G., & Buckner, J. C. (1996). Work and welfare: Job histories, barriers to employment, and predictors of work among low-income single mothers. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 66,* 526–537.

Burke, R. J. (1986). Reemployment on a poorer job after a plant closing. *Psychological Reports, 58,* 559–570.

Caldwell, D. F., & Burger, J. M. (1998). Personality characteristics of job applicants and success in screening interviews. *Personnel Psychology, 51,* 119–136.

Cammann, C., Fichman, M., Jenkins, D., & Klesh, J. (1983). Assessing the attitudes and perceptions of organizational members. In S. E. Seashore, E. E. Lawler III, P. H. Mirvis, & C. Cammann (Eds.), *Assessing organizational change: A guide to methods, measures, and practices* (pp. 71–138). New York: Wiley.

Caplan, R. D., Vinokur, A. D., Price, R. H., & van Ryn, M. (1989). Job-seeking, reemployment, and mental health: A randomized field experiment in coping with job loss. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 74,* 759–769.

Dayton, C. W. (1981). The young person's job search: Insights from a study. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 28,* 321–333.

DeMaris, A. (1992). *Logit modeling.* Newbury Park: Sage.

Eden, D., & Aviram, A. (1993). Self-efficacy training to speed reemployment: Helping people to help themselves. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 78,* 352–360.

Ellis, R. A., & Taylor, M. S. (1983). Role of self-esteem within the job-search process. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 68,* 632–640.

Feather, N. T. (1990). *The psychological impact of unemployment.* New York: Springer-Verlag.

Feather, N. T., & Bond, M. J. (1983). Time structure and purposeful activity among employed and unemployed university graduates. *Journal of Occupational Psychology, 56,* 241–254.

Feather, N. T., & O'Brien, G. W. (1987). Looking for employment: An expectancy-valence analysis of job-seeking behavior among school-leavers. *Journal of Occupational Psychology, 59,* 121–144.

Hall, D. T. (1996). *The career is dead: Long live the career.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Hinkin, T. R. (1998). A brief tutorial on the development of measures for use in survey questionnaires. *Organizational Research Methods, 1,* 104–121.

Jöreskog, K. G., & Sörbom, D. (1993). *LISREL 8: User's reference guide.* Chicago: Scientific Software.

Kanfer, R., & Heggestad, E. D. (1997). Motivational traits and skills: A person-centered approach to work motivation. *Research in Organizational Behavior, 19,* 1–56.

Kanfer, R., & Hulin, C. L. (1985). Individual differences in successful job searches following lay-off. *Personnel Psychology, 38,* 835–847.

Kinicki, A. J. (1989). Predicting occupational role choice after involuntary job loss. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 35,* 204–218.

Kochanski, J. T. (1996). Introduction to special issue on human resource competencies. *Human Resource Management, 35,* 3–6.

Kuhl, J. (1985). Volitional mediators of cognition-behavior consistency: Self-regulatory process and action vs. state orientation. In J. Kuhl & J. Beckmann (Eds.), *Action control: From cognition to behavior* (pp. 101–128). New York: Springer-Verlag.

Kulik, C. T., & Rowland, K. M. (1989). The relationship of attributional frameworks to job seekers' perceived success and job search involvement. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 10,* 361–367.

Leana, C. R., & Feldman, D. C. (1992). *Coping with job loss.* Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.

Leana, C. R., & Feldman, D. C. (1995). Finding new jobs after a plant closing. Antecedents and outcomes of the occurrence and quality of reemployment. *Human Relations, 48,* 1381–1401.

Minnesota Department of Economic Security. (1996). *Creative job search.* Minneapolis: Author.

Minnesota Department of Economic Security. (1997a). *Profile of Minnesota reemployment insurance claimants calendar year 1996.* Available: http://www.des.state.mn.us/lmi.

Minnesota Department of Economic Security. (1997b). *Minnesota reemployment insurance claims calendar year 1997.* Available: http://www.des.state.mn.us/lmi.

Peters, L. H., & O'Connor, E. J. (1980). Situational constraints and work outcomes: The influences of a frequently overlooked construct. *Academy of Management Review, 5,* 391–397.

Price, R. H. (1992). Psychological impact of job loss on individuals and families. *Current Directions in Psychological Science, 1,* 9–11.

Price, R. H., & Vinokur, A. D. (1995). Supporting career transitions in a time of organizational downsizing. In M. London (Ed.), *Employees, careers, and job creation* (pp. 191–209). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Prussia, G. E., Kinicki, A. J., & Bracker, J. S. (1993). Psychological and behavioral consequences of job loss: A covariance structure analysis using Weiner's (1985) attribution model. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 78,* 382–394.

Quinn, R. P., & Staines, G. L. (1979). *The 1977 Quality of Employment Survey.* Ann Arbor: University of Michigan.

Rife, J., & Kilty, K. (1990). Job search discouragement and the older worker: Implications for social work practice. *Journal of Applied Social Sciences, 14,* 71–94.

Roth, P. L. (1994). Missing data: A conceptual review for applied psychologists. *Personnel Psychology, 47,* 537–560.

Rowley, K. M., & Feather, N. T. (1987). The impact of unemployment in relation to age and length of unemployment. *Journal of Occupational Psychology, 60,* 323–332.

Schmit, M. J., Amel, E. L., & Ryan, A. M. (1993). Self-reported assertive job-seeking behaviors of minimally educated job hunters. *Personnel Psychology, 46,* 105–124.

Schwab, D. P., Rynes, S. L., & Aldag, R. J. (1987). Theories and research on job search and choice. *Research in Personnel and Human Resources Management, 5,* 129–166.

Solberg, S. V., Good, G. E., Nord, D., Holm, C., Hohner, R., Zima, N., Heffernan, M., & Malen, A. (1994). Assessing career search expectations: Development and validation of the Career Search Efficacy Scale. *Journal of Career Assessment, 2,* 111–123.

Steffy, B. D., Shaw, K. N., & Noe, A. W. (1989). Antecedents and consequences of job search behaviors. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 35,* 254–269.

Ullah, P. (1990). The association between income, financial strain, and psychological well-being among unemployed youths. *Journal of Occupational Psychology, 63,* 317–330.

van Ryn, M., & Vinokur, A. D. (1991). *Mediators of intervention effects: The role of experimentally manipulated self-efficacy in*

determining job-search behavior among the unemployed. Unpublished manuscript.

van Ryn, M., & Vinokur, A. D. (1992). How did it work? An examination of the mechanisms through which an intervention for the unemployed promoted job-search behavior. *American Journal of Community Psychology, 20,* 577–597.

Vinokur, A., & Caplan, R. D. (1987). Attitudes and social support: Determinants of job-seeking behavior and well-being among the unemployed. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 17,* 1007–1024.

Vinokur, A. D., Price, R. H., & Schul, Y. (1995). Impact of the JOBS intervention on unemployed workers varying in risk for depression. *American Journal of Community Psychology, 23,* 39–74.

Vinokur, A. D., & Schul, Y. (1997). Mastery and inoculation against setbacks as active ingredients in the JOBS intervention for the unemployed. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 65,* 867–877.

Wanberg, C. R. (1997). Antecedents and outcomes of coping behaviors among unemployed and reemployed individuals. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 82,* 731–744.

Wanberg, C. R., Watt, J. D., & Rumsey, D. J. (1996). Individuals without jobs: An empirical study of job-seeking behavior and reemployment. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 81,* 76–87.

Wanous, J. P., Reichers, A. E., & Hudy, M. J. (1997). Overall job satisfaction: How good are single item measures. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 82,* 247–252.

Warr, P., & Jackson, P. (1984). Men without jobs: Some correlates of age and length of unemployment. *Journal of Occupational Psychology, 57,* 77–85.

Whelan, C. T. (1992). The role of income, life-style deprivation and financial strain in mediating the impact of unemployment on psychological distress: Evidence from the Republic of Ireland. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 65,* 331–344.

(*Appendix follows*)

Appendix

Survey Scale Measures and Sample Items

Variable name and items from each	No. items in the scale	Source of items and scale
Employment commitment	8	Rowley & Feather (1987)
1. Even if I won a great deal of money in the lottery, I would want to continue working somewhere.		
2. I get bored without a job.		
3. The most important things that have happened to me have involved my job.		
Financial hardship	3	Vinokur & Caplan (1987)
1. How difficult is it for you to live on your *total* household income right now?		
2. In the next two months, how much do you anticipate that you and your family will experience actual hardships such as inadequate housing, food, or medical attention?		
3. In the next two months, how much do you anticipate having to reduce your standard of living to the bare necessities of life?		
Job-search self-efficacy	10	van Ryn & Vinokur (1991) and Solberg et al. (1994)
How confident do you feel about being able to do the following things successfully?		
1. Making a *good* list of all the skills that you have and can be used to find a job?		
2. Completing a *good* job application and résumé?		
3. Contacting and persuading potential employers to consider you for a job?		
Emotion control skill	6	Developed for use in this study
The following statements refer to thoughts and responses that people often report during the job-search process. Indicate how representative each of the statements is of YOU in the job-search process.		
1. I frequently worry about what other people will think of me. (R)		
2. I tend to get "rattled easily." (R)		
3. I get mad at myself when I miss an opportunity or make a mistake. (R)		
4. I am afraid to call people to ask about job openings. (R)		
5. I get anxious even thinking about a job interview. (R)		
6. I am afraid that I will come across poorly in an interview. (R)		
Motivation control skill	5	Developed for use in this study
The following statements refer to thoughts and responses that people often report during the job-search process. Indicate how representative each of the statements is of YOU in the job-search process.		
1. I make myself concentrate on what more I can do to get a job.		
2. I practice my conversations with potential employers ahead of time.		
3. I plan my job-search activities ahead of time.		
4. I set specific goals for myself.		
5. I think about how happy I will be when I get another job.		
Job-search constraints	7	Developed for use in this study
1. How much has your physical health interfered with your ability to look for a job?		
2. How much have your child-care or family responsibilities interfered with your ability to search for a job?		
3. How much have civic, school, religious, or other outside responsibilities interfered with your ability to search for a job?		
How much do you think each of the following negatively influences how much time and effort you can devote to your job search?		
4. Not having adequate transportation.		
5. Not having enough money to search (e.g., for clothing, phone calls, mailings).		
6. Family conflicts.		
7. Not having friends or family to discuss job possibilities with.		
Job-search intensity	13	Blau (1994)
The following is a list of some things that people do when looking for a new job. How many times have you done each of the following in the last two weeks?		
1. Read the help wanted/classified ads in a newspaper, journal, or professional association?		
2. Spoke with previous employers or business acquaintances about their knowing of potential job leads?		
3. Listed yourself as a job applicant in a newspaper, on the Web, in a journal or professional association?		
Reemployment	1	Wanberg et al. (1996)
1. Which one of the following most accurately describes your current employment status? 0 = unemployed 1 = employed		
Reemployment quality		
1. Job satisfaction: All in all, how satisfied would you say you are with your new job?	1	Quinn & Staines (1979)
2. Job improvement: Please compare your new job to the job you had before you became unemployed . . . using the items below. (supervision, nearness to home, working hours, wages, opportunity to use skills, job security, type of work, working conditions, fringe benefits, career opportunities, learning opportunities, and overall comparison.)	12	Burke (1986)
3. Intention to turnover: How likely is it that you will actively look for another job in the next year?	1	Cammann et al. (1983)

Received July 20, 1998
Revision received January 14, 1999
Accepted January 14, 1999 ■