

UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA

Santa Barbara

Factors Related to Job-Search Success: Examining the Role of Employment Flexibility

A dissertation submitted in partial satisfaction of the
requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy
in Counseling, Clinical, and School Psychology

by

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September 2016

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EDUCATION

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Emphasis in Psychosocial Rehabilitation
- 2011-2016 **University of California, Santa Barbara, Santa Barbara, CA**
Ph.D. in Counseling, Clinical, and School Psychology (APA accredited)
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- 2009-2011 **San Jose State University, San Jose, CA**
M.A. in Education; Counseling & Student Personnel Services
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- 2003-2007 **University of California, Irvine, Irvine, CA**
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AWARDS AND HONORS

- 2012 Ray E. Hosford Award for Excellence in Professional Behavior
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RESEARCH EXPERIENCE

Dissertation

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Factors Related to Job-Search Success: Examining the Role of Employment Flexibility

Primary Supervisor: Michael T. Brown, Ph.D.

- Conducting a cross-sectional survey research study to examine the role employment flexibility has in the job-search process of recent college graduates
- Development and psychometric evaluation of the Employment Flexibility Scale (EFS)
- Findings indicate that employment flexibility is significantly related to variables predictive of a successful job-search: career adaptability, job-search strategy, and job-search intensity

Other Research Experience

November 2015 – Present

Clinicians' Awareness of Vocational Programs: A Program Evaluation

Primary Investigators: Chuck Drebing, Ph.D., Lisa Mueller, Ph.D.

- Cross-sectional survey study investigating knowledge, awareness, and competence of vocational interventions among VA clinical staff

August 2014 – Present

Resilience in Holocaust Survivors

Primary Investigator: Melissa Morgan Consoli, Ph.D.

- Conducting qualitative interviews with Holocaust survivors to better understand psychological resiliency in the face of adversity
- Transcribing and coding of qualitative data with NVivo 8

January 2014 – June 2014

Veterans Entering Treatment Service (VETS) Drug Court

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- Conducted clinical interviews and administered clinical assessments to veterans to assess for levels of substance use and symptoms of PTSD
- Entered and managed quantitative data using SPSS
- Assessments administered included: PTSD Checklist – Civilian Version (PCL), Patient Health Questionnaire – 9, Mental Health Statistics Improvement Project, Moral Injury Events Scale, Trauma History Screen, Combat Exposure Scale, Trauma Symptom Inventory

December 2013 – February 2014

Mis Tres Caras: Community Program Evaluation

Primary Investigator: Melissa Morgan Consoli, Ph.D.

- Conducted qualitative interviews with program participants
- Transcribed and coded qualitative data using NVivo software
- Presented findings, and offered consultation, from our evaluation to the *Mis Tres Caras* Board of Directors

October 2013 – August 2014

Differential Status Identity and Vocational Aspirations and Expectations

Co-Investigator: Michael T. Brown, Ph.D.

- Investigated the relationship between perceived social status and one's vocational aspirations and expectations
- Analyzed and interpreted results using SPSS

September 2012 – August 2013

Refinement and Evaluation of the Differential Status Identity Scale

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- Conducted a survey research study to examine the psychometric properties of a measure of perceived social status
- Collected data from university students across three different institutions of higher education
- Analyzed and interpreted results using SPSS

August 2010 – May 2011

A Model for Providing Career Counseling Services to Foster Youth

Co-Investigator: Caitlin Williams, Ph.D.

- Conducted an extensive review of the literature on foster youth career development
- Developed a ten week career counseling intervention program for foster youth emancipating from state care
- Project resulted in the development of a 66-page resources guide outlining the vocational and educational options for foster youth after high school, which was used by the Santa Clara County court system

September 2008 – September 2011

Examining the Effectiveness of the Gaining Early Awareness and Readiness for Undergraduate Programs (GEAR UP) School Counseling Intervention

Primary Investigator: Xiaolu Hu, Ph.D.

- Gathered and monitored quantitative and qualitative longitudinal data on the effectiveness of a school counseling program on closing the educational achievement gap of low-income, minority youth
- Coordinated career counseling services for cohort of 300 students
- Conducted training and consultation to school administrators and staff

PUBLICATIONS

Peer-Reviewed Journal Articles

Stevenson, B. J. (in press). Developing a career counseling intervention program for foster youth. *Journal of Employment Counseling*.

Stevenson, B. J. (2010, October). An interactive activity to address stereotypes about career roles in middle schools. *Career Convergence*.

Manuscripts in Preparation or Under Review

Morgan Consoli, M. L., **Stevenson, B. J.**, Noriega, E., Eichler, W., Hershman, K., & Roman, C. (revise and resubmit). A social-justice informed formative evaluation of *Mis Tres Caras*: A mentorship-based program pairing at-risk youth and Holocaust survivors

Stevenson, B. J. & Brown, M. T. (under review). Refinement and evaluation of the Differential Status Identity Scale.

Stevenson, B. J. & Brown, M. T. (in preparation). Development and validation of the Employment Flexibility Scale.

Stevenson, B. J. & Brown, M. T. (in preparation). Examining the role of employment flexibility in the job-search process of recent college graduates.

Newsletters and Other Publications

Stevenson, B. J. & McCarthy, C. (Winter, 2014). Message from SVP student representatives. *The Newsletter of the Society for Vocational Psychology: A Section of the Society of Counseling Psychology (Division 17) of the American Psychological Association*, 21(1), p. 5.

Stevenson, B. J. & Michalos-Rispinto, S. C. (Summer, 2013). Message from SVP student representatives. *The Newsletter of the Society for Vocational Psychology: A Section of the Society of Counseling Psychology (Division 17) of the American Psychological Association*, 20(2), p. 3.

Michalos-Rispinto, S. C. & **Stevenson, B. J.** (Winter, 2013). Message from SVP student representatives. *The Newsletter of the Society for Vocational Psychology: A Section of the Society of Counseling Psychology (Division 17) of the American Psychological Association*, 20(1), p. 4.

Stevenson, B. J. (2011). What's next? Guide to postsecondary options for foster youth in the Bay Area. *A 66-page resource guide developed for the Santa Clara County Court system working with emancipating foster youth*.

PRESENTATIONS

Peer-Reviewed Conference Presentations

Stevenson, B. J. & Brown, M. T. (2016, August). *Employment Flexibility: Theory, Measurement, and Implications for Research and Practice*. Poster accepted for presentation at the American Psychological Association Annual Convention, Denver, CO.

Stevenson, B. J. (2016, May). *Unpacking Privileged Messages about Work and Careers*. Ignite symposium presentation at the Psychiatric Rehabilitation Association Annual Recovery Workforce Summit, Boston, MA.

Stevenson, B. J. & Brown, M. T. (2014, August). *Differential Status Identity and Vocational Aspirations and Expectations*. Poster presented at the American Psychological Association Annual Convention, Washington, D.C.

Morgan Consoli, M. L., **Stevenson, B. J.**, Noriega, E., Eichler, W., & Roman, C. (2014, August). *Evaluation of a Community Project Pairing At-Risk Latino/a Youth with Holocaust Survivors*. Poster presented at the American Psychological Association Annual Convention, Washington, D.C.

Stevenson, B. J. & Brown, M. T. (2013, August). *Refinement and Evaluation of the Differential Status Identity Scale*. Poster presented at the American Psychological Association Annual Convention, Honolulu, HI.

Stevenson, B. J. (2010, December). *Bringing Career Services to College Freshmen: A Career Exploration Course*. Poster presented at the Mountain Pacific Association of Colleges and Employers Annual Conference, Newport Beach, CA.

Workshops & Invited Presentations

Stevenson, B. J. (2010, August). *Preparing for Careers of the Future*. Workshop presented at the Foster Youth Higher Education Summit, San Jose, CA.

Stevenson, B. J. (2010, April). *Preparing for Careers of the Future*. Workshop presented at the Advancing Latino/a Achievement and Success Conference, San Jose, CA.

Stevenson, B. J. & Ciardella, G. (2009, October). *Tools for Employment Seekers*. Workshop presented at the Pre Colleges Program Conference, San Jose, CA.

CLINICAL EXPERIENCE

Pre-Doctoral Internship

September 2015 – Present

Edith Nourse Rogers Memorial VA Medical Clinic, Bedford, Massachusetts

Primary Supervisors: Lisa Mueller, Ph.D., L.P.; Richard Amodio, Ph.D., L.P.; Douglas Bitman, Ph.D., L.P.; Kevin Henze, Ph.D., L.P

Psychology Intern; Emphasis in Psychosocial Rehabilitation

- Provide individual and group psychotherapy to veterans
- Primary rotations include: acute psychopathology and assessment (inpatient unit, walk-in clinic, and PTSD assessment), general outpatient services (mental health clinic); psychosocial rehabilitation (homeless domiciliary and compensated work therapy program)

Doctoral Level Practicum Placements

June 2014 – Present

Hosford Counseling and Psychological Services Clinic, Santa Barbara, California

Supervisor: Heidi Zetzer, Ph.D., LP

Clinical Supervisor - Assessment and Research

- Provide clinical supervision to first and second-year counseling and clinical psychology doctoral practicum students
- Conduct phone intake interviews of prospective clients to determine suitability with clinic services
- Manage, maintain, and record data obtained from the weekly clinic assessment protocols and procedures

April 2014 – August 2014

Psychological Assessment Center, Santa Barbara, California

Supervisor: Erik Lande, Ph.D., LP

Assessment Practicum Clinician

- Conducted psychological assessments (structured interviews, personality assessment, and cognitive assessment) among adults
- Provided interpretive feedback sessions for assessment clients
- Assessment experience included: Personality Assessment Inventory (PAI), Thematic Apperception Test (TAT), Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI), Stroop Color and Word Test, Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale Fourth Edition (WAIS-IV)

June 2013 – June 2014

New Beginnings Counseling Center, Santa Barbara, California

Supervisor: Paul Guido, Ph.D., LP

Practicum Clinician

- Provided individual psychotherapy to children and adults at a outpatient community mental health clinic
- Common presenting problems included Axis II personality disorders, severe mood disorders, anxiety disorders, adjustment disorders, homelessness, chronic pain, physical disability, substance abuse problems, legal issues, and relational problems

January 2013 – June 2013

UCSB Alcohol and Drug Program, Santa Barbara, California

Supervisors: Jackie Kurta, Psy.D., & Whitney Bruice, M.A., LMFT

Practicum Clinician

- Led six, and co-led two, weekly “College Alcohol & Substance Education” therapy groups on drug and alcohol use and harm reduction techniques
- Conducted structured interview assessments to evaluate alcohol and drug use/abuse of new clients

September 2012 – June 2013

UCSB Counseling and Psychological Services, Santa Barbara, California

Primary Supervisors: Harlan (Keith) Higginbotham, Psy.D., LP, Jeremy Roark, Ph.D., LP, & Juan Riker, Ph.D., LP

Practicum Clinician

- Provided short-term psychotherapy services to diverse college student clients with a focus on clinical issues related to mood disorders, anxiety disorder, academic problems, phase of life problems, career concerns, adjustment disorders, and relational problems
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September 2011 – June 2012

Hosford Counseling and Psychological Services Clinic, Santa Barbara, California

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Practicum Clinician

- Provided individual, couple, family and group psychotherapy to clients presenting with a variety of clinical issues such as major depression, anxiety, identity issues, familial issues, and relational problems
- Co-led a weekly “Positive Psychology for Managing Stress & Anxiety” psychoeducational group
- Utilized a variety of assessments for diagnosis, treatment planning, and intervention purposes including: Beck Depression Inventory (BDI-II), Beck Hopelessness Scale (BHS), Beck Anxiety Scale (BAI), Mini Mental Status Exam (MMSE), Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure (MEIM), Outcome Questionnaire (OQ-45), Ferrans & Power Quality of Life Index, Working Alliance Inventory (WAI), Session Rating Scale (SRS), Outcome Rating Scale (ORS), and Subjective Well Being (SWB)

Master Level Practicum Placements

June 2010 – September 2011

GEAR UP: Lincoln High School, San Jose, California

Primary Supervisors: Xiaolu Hu, Ph.D., & Lorri Capizzi, M.A.

Counselor

- Provided individual counseling services to at-risk high school students with presenting problems focusing on academic issues, AB 540 and undocumented, gang involvement, familial issues, identity development, substance use, and poverty
- Developed multiple parent outreach programs on topics such as college readiness, parenting techniques, and substance use
- Collaborated with teachers, administrators, and parents for assessment and treatment planning purposes, which included attending and co-facilitating IEP meetings

July 2009 – May 2010

SJSU Career Center, San Jose, California

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- Provided career counseling services to undergraduate and graduate students
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September 2008 – June 2010

GEAR UP: Hoover Middle School, San Jose, California

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Counselor

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TEACHING EXPERIENCE

Adjunct Professor

Bay Path University, Longmeadow, MA

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- PSY 405 – Counseling Diverse Populations (Winter 2016)
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PROFESSIONAL & COMMUNITY SERVICE

Professional Service – Organizations

- 2012-2014 Student Representative to the Executive Board
 Society for Vocational Psychology
- 2010 Student Volunteer
 National Career Development Association Annual Conference
- 2009 Student Volunteer
 California Career Development Association Annual Conference

Professional Service – Research and Editorial Review

- 2016 Mentored Ad Hoc Reviewing
 Journal of Rehabilitation Research & Development
- 2012-2013 Mentored Ad Hoc Reviewing
 Journal of Counseling Psychology

Professional Service – Departmental

- 2013-2014 Clinic Committee
 Department of Counseling, Clinical, and School Psychology (UCSB)

2011-2012 Climate Committee
Department of Counseling, Clinical, and School Psychology (UCSB)

Community Service – Volunteering

Court Appointed Special Advocate (CASA), Santa Barbara, California
CASA Volunteer, June 2012 – June 2014

- Served as a mentor and advocate for three different teens living in foster care
- Wrote several court reports and offered psychosocial recommendations to the judge responsible for the foster youths' welfare

PROFESSIONAL AFFILIATIONS

American Psychological Association
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National Career Development Association

ABSTRACT

Factors Related to Job-Search Success: Examining the Role of Employment Flexibility

by

Brian James Stevenson

This study sought to examine the ways in which employment flexibility – a novel psychological construct defined as one’s willingness to work under a variety of different employment conditions – impacts the job-search process of recent college graduates. Specifically, this study aimed to investigate the relationships between employment flexibility and the following antecedents, behaviors, and outcomes of job-searching: number of job interviews received, number of job offers received, career adaptability, job-search intensity, job-search strategy, and job-search self-efficacy. Additionally, this study sought to develop a measure of employment flexibility as well as to provide initial evidence of construct validation.

The first step in accomplishing the goals of this study was to develop a measure of employment flexibility, the Employment Flexibility Scale (EFS). The EFS was developed based on the theoretical underpinnings of employment flexibility- circumscription and compromise (Gottfredson, 2002; 2005) and underemployment theory (Feldman, 1996). After an initial item development process, a reliability analysis and an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted in a sample of 204 of recent college graduates. Results from this first

study suggested that the EFS was a reliable measure consisting of three factors: Person-Job Mismatch Flexibility, Resources Mismatch Flexibility, and Relational Mismatch Flexibility. After this initial exploration of the EFS, a second study was undertaken to confirm this three-factor structure of the EFS.

Study Two was completed with a new sample of 123 recent college graduates. Data collected from this sample was used to conduct a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). Results from the CFA corroborated that the EFS has a stable three-factor structure. Finally, a third study was conducted to investigate the specific hypotheses guiding this research study.

Study Three was conducted among a new sample of 201 of recent college graduates. Participants in this study were asked to complete a variety of self-report measures. Correlational and regression analysis of the data collected in this study indicated that employment flexibility was related to a number of important job-search variables. Specifically, this study found that employment flexibility was positively related to job-search intensity, career adaptability, and an exploratory job-search strategy. Additionally, results from this study provide insights into the ways in which employment flexibility operates within the recent college graduate population. In general, it appears that recent college graduates are moderately employment flexible, and have the least flexibility toward pay underemployment and hours underemployment (i.e., Resources Mismatch Flexibility). The results of this study serve as the foundation to discuss the implications for practice and future research.

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Chapter I

Introduction

Statement of the Problem

A robust literature base has grown out of the fields of counseling and vocational psychology aimed at helping people make the best career choices possible. Backed by empirically tested theoretical models of career development such as social cognitive career theory (SCCT; Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1994), career construction theory (Savikas, 2002), circumscription and compromise (Gottfredson, 2005), and the theory of vocational personality types (Holland, 1997), our knowledge of the complex processes underlying vocational choice has progressed by leaps and bounds. For example, we know that various types of self-efficacy are important to career choice (Betz & Hackett, 1981), as are contextual factors such as gender (Gottfredson, 2005), race (Fouad & Byars-Winston, 2005), social class (Brown, Fukunaga, Umemoto, & Wicker, 1996; Diemer & Ali, 2009), sexual orientation (Adams, Cahill, & Ackerlind, 2005), and family of origin (Whiston & Keller, 2004). Certainly, this collective knowledge has contributed to the development of a variety of interventions that have helped a great number of people with work-related problems (Miller & Brown, 2005); however, recent scholarship has drawn attention to the lack of attention vocational research has given to people on the margins of our society, such as people who are unemployed (Blustein, 2006; 2013; Blustein, Kenna, Gill, & DeVoy, 2008).

The recent call for a more class-inclusive “psychology of work” (see Blustein, 2006) is critically important given the current state of the U.S. labor market, which is widely characterized by instability, change, and transition. Gone are the assumptions that people will make career choices early in life, or that people will remain in one job until they retire.

Rather, it is expected that people will be forced to make numerous work-related decisions and transitions over an entire lifespan (Fouad, 2007). In fact, data suggests that temporary employment is the fastest growing segment of the U.S. labor force (Hall & Mirvis, 1995). Furthermore, rates of underemployment are expected to increase well into the future (U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2008).

Fueling these dramatic labor market changes are broad social, economic, and political processes such as the rise in technology, improved methods of communication, and globalization (DeBell, 2006). Many believe that the last time the world of work has undergone such dramatic changes was at the dawn of the industrial revolution of the late 19th and early 20th centuries (Sweet & Meiksins, 2012). Today, counseling and vocational psychologists are tasked with better understanding how people make work-related decisions in a labor market that is in a constant state of flux (DeBell, 2006; Fouad, 2007; Fouad & Bynner, 2008). This is particularly needed as people strive to find their place in a vocational world that is changing, challenging, and increasingly different from a world of work of the recent past.

Recent college graduates are among the most susceptible to experience turmoil in this new labor market (Feldman, 1996; Koen, Klehe, Van Vianen, Zikic, & Nauta, 2010; Richards, 1984). Over the last several decades, the U.S. has seen a significant increase in the number of job seekers possessing a four-year college degree, with more people earning college degrees today compared to any other time in history (Dohm & Wyatt, 2002; Richards, 1984; Spreen, 2013). However, it has been noted that the projected growth of high-skilled jobs over the next several years is not keeping pace with the growing number of college graduates entering the workforce (Vedder, Denhart, & Robe, 2013). As a result,

recent college graduates are likely to experience an ever-increasing competitive job market for precious few jobs that match their training and experience. Moreover, there are more than ten million people who are unemployed in the United States (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2014a), and a growing number of this population is comprised of college-educated individuals (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2014c). This large number is particularly concerning because research has shown that unemployment is directly related to many negative outcomes (Paul & Moser, 2009). For example, unemployment is related to social problems like poverty (Blusetin, 2006), poorer physical health (Gore, 1978; Jandackova, Paulik, & Steptoe, 2012), economic hardship (Eamon & Wu, 2011), as well as psychological problems like depression (Fryer & Fagan, 2003), alcohol abuse (Dooley, Catalano, & Hough, 1992), and suicide (Chen, Chou, Lai, & Lee, 2010; Classen & Dunn, 2012), just to name a few.

Fortunately, researchers have demonstrated that becoming (re)employed can protect people from many of the negative outcomes associated with unemployment (Rowley & Feather, 1987). This literature has established many variables as important factors to job-search process, and ultimately, (re)employment success. Indeed, factors such as the number of job interviews and the number of job offers received are highly predictive of (re)employment success (Wanberg, 2012). Additionally, factors such as career adaptability, or an individual's set of resources and strategies for coping with job transitions (see Savickas, 2002; 2005), job-search behavior, or the type, intensity, and persistence of one's job-search (see Kanfer, Wanberg, & Kantrowitz, 2001), and job-search self-efficacy, or the level of confidence one has in their ability to carry out the tasks necessary to conduct a job-search (see Saks, 2006), have stood out as three important variables for finding and securing

employment. However, to more fully understand the ways in which these variables lead to a successful job-search, it is necessary to consider how the current climate of the changing world of work may impact this process. In particular, it may be important to consider how people's views on work are incongruent with today's workplace realities.

A limited research base has examined the ways in which people perceive work in their lives. Arising from this literature is the popular cultural narrative that work should be a form of self-expression that is meaningful and purposeful, while providing one with greater access to the "American Dream" (e.g., Shane & Heckhausen, 2013). In fact, research has demonstrated that individuals' views and expectations of work have grown increasingly less congruent with the actual workplace climate in terms of values like the desire to hold the same job for most of one's life and work that allows ample time for leisure, compared to similar aged individuals from 40 years ago (Wray-Lake, Syvertsen, Briddell, Osgood, & Flanagan, 2011). Indeed, it seems that people's beliefs about work and working have not caught up with the realities of the current labor market, as many scholars agree that the traditional narrative of working in a career that matches your interests, values, and self-concept is not relevant for most people in today's world of work. Given this stark contrast, people will undoubtedly experience much psychological turmoil as they concede on their long-held beliefs regarding their work-lives (Blustein, 2008), and they'll either feel poorly when they take a job considered less than ideal (Maynard & Feldman, 2011a), or they'll likely become one of the nearly one million people who completely give up on looking for work and become permanently unemployed – a population labeled as "discouraged workers" by the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics (2014b).

Following from this discussion, it appears that a more adaptive view of work would be one in which people are flexible to working in a job that doesn't necessarily match an expectation that work should be an expression of one's self-concept. This may be particularly important among the middle class and highly educated populations, as these individuals tend to most strongly hold on to the popular cultural narrative that work should be an expression of one's interests, identity, and values, while providing access to the American Dream (Blustein, 2006; Shane & Heckhausen, 2013). Recently, researchers have begun to recognize the need to examine this contemporary issue; however, there is currently a dearth of literature within this area of inquiry.

Two different constructs – psychological mobility (e.g., Forret, Sullivan, & Mainiero, 2010; Sullivan & Arthur, 2006; Vansteenkiste, Verbruggen, & Sels, 2013) and job flexibility (Peiro, Garcia-Montalvo, & Garcia, 2002; Van den Broeck, Wansteenkiste, Lens, & De Witte, 2010) – have emerged in the vocational literature to examine individual's flexibility in career decision-making. However, major conceptual and operational flaws with these concepts make it difficult to advance our understanding of this phenomenon. This paper will demonstrate how neither construct has been clearly defined, and therefore, researchers have operationalized and measured these concepts in different and distinct ways from one study to the next. This makes it difficult to synthesize and interpret the collective findings from this limited research base. Furthermore, neither construct (psychological mobility or job flexibility) has integrated theory of career choice into their original conceptualization. Ultimately, this line of research is interested in understanding the work-related decisions people make, and therefore, it appears important to integrate theories of career choice into

any conceptualization of an individual's flexibility for working in a job that doesn't meet his or her expectations.

Purpose of Study

The present study addresses the conceptual and methodological flaws of the prior attempts at examining one's flexibility for work options that are incongruent with one's expectations. This concept has been coined *employment flexibility*. This paper will outline the theoretical support for this construct, develop and refine a measure of employment flexibility, and will seek to demonstrate employment flexibility's relationship to employment outcomes as well as a variety of factors related to job-search success. In particular, this study will examine the relationships between employment flexibility and (1) employment status (i.e., whether or not someone is employed), (2) the number of job interview one receives, (3) the number of job offers one receives, (4) career adaptability, (5) job-search behavior, and (6) job-search self-efficacy. Furthermore, this study will explore the theoretical propositions that underlie employment flexibility. By doing so, this study will provide researchers with a much needed theoretical conceptualization of this phenomenon.

Research Questions

This study is guided by the following primary research questions:

Research Question 1: What is employment flexibility?

Research Question 2: How does employment flexibility relate to successfully finding and securing employment?

Chapter II

Review of the Literature

This chapter will begin by discussing the experience of unemployment, and the need for people to find work quickly. Next, this chapter will explore the various factors related to helping people be successful in their job-search. In particular, this chapter will discuss career adaptability, job-search behaviors, and job-search self-efficacy as important factors that help people successfully find and secure employment. However, this review will argue that these factors are hindered in their ability to have greater impact on a successful job-search because of contemporary challenges related to the changing nature of work. In particular, this literature review will document how the world of work is dramatically changing, and how people's perceptions of work have not caught up with this shifting labor market; thus, creating challenges to the job-search process and, ultimately, causing difficulty for one to successfully find an secure a job. This review will then introduce employment flexibility as an important psychological construct to address this problem.

Next, this review will critically examine the research aimed at studying this contemporary phenomenon. In particular, this review will examine the concepts of psychological mobility and job flexibility. This examination will highlight the conceptual and methodological flaws of this scant literature base, which will lead to a discussion of the need for theoretical integration. It will be argued that an integration of the underemployment theory with circumscription and compromise theory will be beneficial to the limited literature base on this topic. Finally, this chapter will conclude with the hypotheses and exploratory questions that are guiding the current study.

The Experience of Unemployment

Today, approximately 10.5 million people are unemployed in the United States (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2014a). Of this vast group, nearly four million people are considered long-term unemployed, as they have been without employment for over six months (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2014a). In addition to these figures, a new and growing population are considered discouraged workers, or “persons not currently looking for work because they believe no jobs are available for them” (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2014b). At the start of 2014, approximately 837,000 people were estimated to be among the discouraged worker population (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2014b). Moreover, individuals with four-year college diplomas or beyond (e.g., master’s degrees, professional degrees, and doctoral degrees) make up a growing segment of the unemployed population. Estimates suggest that there are approximately 1.8 million people over the age of 25 that are unemployed with at least a four-year college degree (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2014c), while other estimates suggest that approximately 5.6 percent of college-educated individuals between the ages of 22 to 27 are currently unemployed (Jones & Schmitt, 2014).

The statistics on unemployment are alarming, as unemployment has lasting consequences on everything from individual functioning and survival, to larger global-level problems like homelessness and poverty (Ali, 2013; Blustein, 2006). For instance, we know that unemployment is related to poorer physical health (Gore, 1978; Jandackova, Paulik, & Steptoe, 2012), problematic interpersonal relationships (Hanisch, 1999; Song, Foo, Uy, & Sun, 2011), increased criminal convictions (Verbruggen, Blokland, & Van Der Geest, 2012), and financial hardship (Eamon & Wu, 2011). Moreover, from a psychological perspective,

unemployment is related to depression (Fryer & Fagan, 2003), hostility (Hakulinen et al., 2013), demoralization (Fryer & Fagan, 2003), alcohol abuse (Dooley, Catalano, & Hough, 1992), stigmatization (Furaker & Blomsterberg, 2003), and suicide (Chen, Chou, Lai, & Lee, 2010; Classen & Dunn, 2012). While some may argue that these negative consequences are what cause unemployment, and not the other way around, two important meta-analyses have suggested that this is not true (see McKee-Ryan, Song, Wanberg, & Kinicki, 2005; Paul & Moser, 2009). Furthermore, research has indicated that the duration of one's unemployment is negatively related to mental health problems (Rowley & Feather, 1987). In other words, as the time one is unemployed increases, his or her mental health gets worse. Given these findings, it seems that practitioners should strive to get people who are unemployed (re)employed as quickly as possible, or that steps should be taken to prevent unemployment from occurring in the first place. By doing so, it may be possible to minimize or thwart the onset of serious (mental) health problems.

Factors Related to (Re)employment Success

An extensive literature base has investigated the factors related to (re)employment success, which is generally defined as a job seekers ability to find a job quickly that he or she considers to be of quality (Wanberg, 2012). Amidst this robust literature base, career adaptability (e.g., Savickas, 1997; 2002; 2005), job-search behavior (e.g., Kanfer, Wanberg, & Kantrowitz, 2001), and job-search self-efficacy (e.g., Saks, 2005; 2006) have emerged as some of the most critical components related to reemployment success.

Career adaptability. The concept of career adaptability was initially proposed by Savickas (1997) as a central component of career construction theory. Generally, the concept of career adaptability is defined as an individual's ability to successfully navigate a range of

career-related transitions, including a jobseeker's transition back into the workplace following a period of unemployment (Koen et al., 2010). More specifically, Savickas (2005) defines career adaptability as a "psychosocial construct that denotes an individual's readiness and resources for coping with current and imminent vocational development tasks, occupational transitions, and personal traumas" (p. 51). Thus, career adaptability is comprised of the resources, strategies, and competencies needed to successfully adapt to changing work environments. Savickas (2002; 2005) has identified four global-level components of career adaptability that are each accompanied by important competencies.

The first component of career adaptability is "concern," which refers to one's ability to plan and prepare for their vocational future. The competency associated with concern is "planning." The second component of career adaptability is "control," which refers to one's sense that he or she is responsible for constructing their career. The competency associated with control is "decision-making." The third component of career adaptability is "curiosity," which refers to a level of inquisitiveness and exploration of vocational possibilities. The competency associated with curiosity is "exploration." The fourth component of career adaptability is "confidence," which refers to one's self-efficacy in solving career-related problems. The competency associated with confidence is "problem solving."

There is an extensive literature base that has empirically supported career adaptability as an important construct in the career development process of a wide range of people. Important to the study at hand, empirical evidence has recently demonstrated the relationship of career adaptability to the process of finding a new job. In one study, Koen and colleagues (2010) found that career adaptability served as an indicator of an unemployed individual's readiness for engaging in different job-search strategies, such as an exploratory, focused, or

haphazard type of job-search, and this, in turn, influenced the number of job-offers received, as well as the perceived reemployment quality of a new job. Further analysis of their results indicated that the planning and exploration competencies of career adaptability were related to increased job offers, while the decision-making and confidence competencies of career adaptability were related to higher perceived reemployment quality. Somewhat differently, Zikic and Klehe (2006) found that increased planning and exploration behaviors of career adaptability were related to higher levels of perceived job quality amongst unemployed individuals who were reemployed in a new job for six months. In another study, the relationship between career adaptability and employability skills – general competencies that are conceptualized as being required universally across all jobs, such as communication, problem solving, and teamwork – was examined (de Guzman & Choi, 2013). Results from de Guzman and Choi's (2013) study indicated that career adaptability was significantly and positively related to employability skills as operationalized by communication, problem solving, and teamwork. While this research is limited, these studies seem to suggest that career adaptability does impact the job-search process.

Job-search behavior. Job-search behavior is commonly thought of as the most important factor related to finding employment (Kanfer et al., 2001; Koen et al., 2010). According to Kanfer and colleagues (2001) job-search behavior refers to “a self-regulatory process directed toward obtaining an employment goal” (p. 838). Commonly, job-search behavior is operationalized by three distinct dimensions: (1) the intensity at which one engages in job-search activities, (2) the particular strategies one uses in their job-search (e.g., exploratory, focused, or haphazard), and (3) the persistence of one's job-search behavior over time.

Job-search intensity, specifically, has been related to many relevant vocational outcomes. For example, in a study of recently graduated college students, Saks (2006) found that job-search intensity significantly and positively predicted the number of job interviews received, as well as the number of job offers received. Guerro and Rothstein (2012) corroborate these findings by noting that job-search intensity is related to job interviews and job offers amongst a sample of skilled immigrants residing in Canada. In another study among 219 graduating college students, Werbel (2000) found job-search intensity was significantly and positively related to the initial compensation of the job seekers first job. In other words, more intense job-searches were related to higher salaries of one's job. Furthermore, Werbel found that environmental exploration (i.e., the extent to which individuals sought information on job opportunities), and not self-exploration (i.e., the extent to which individuals engaged in self-assessment activities related to one's career), was significantly and positively related to job-search intensity.

Job-search strategies have been conceptualized in many different ways, as there is likely to be numerous different methods by which one can search for a job. Despite these numerous conceptualizations, the literature consistently demonstrates that different job-search strategies lead to different employment outcomes. For example, Wiczorkowska and Burnstein (2004) found that unemployed individuals who engaged in an interval strategy for job-searching (individuals with broad goal-categories and perceive many jobs as possibilities) were reemployed significantly faster than individuals who use point strategy for job-searching (a focused job-search of a few options). In other studies, job-search strategies have been conceptualized by three distinct methods: exploratory, focused, and haphazard (Crossley & Highhouse, 2005; Koen et al., 2010). According to Koen and colleagues (2010)

an exploratory job-search strategy is characterized by an openness to a wide range of job possibilities and actively gathering job information from a variety of sources, a focused job-search strategy is characterized by individuals who identify clear job goals and engage in activities that are targeted at these goals only, and a haphazard job-search strategy is characterized by individuals who switch their job-search strategies without reason and passively gather job information that lacks cohesion. Two different studies found that an exploratory job-search strategy positively predicted number of job offers (Crossley & Highhouse, 2005; Koen et al., 2010). Furthermore, Crossley and Highhouse (2005) found that an exploratory job-search strategy was significantly and positively related to satisfaction with the career decision-making process. However, findings are mixed in terms of the relationship between an exploratory job-search strategy and subsequent job satisfaction. Koen and colleagues (2010) found that an exploratory job-search strategy was negatively related to job satisfaction, while Crossley and Highhouse (2005) found that an exploratory job-search strategy was positively related to job satisfaction and was no less superior than a focused job-search strategy in predicting future job satisfaction. Overall, these collective findings seem to suggest that both exploratory and focused job-search strategies equally successful in helping people become (re)employed.

In general, scholars tend to believe that job-search persistence is an important contributor to job-search success; however, very few studies have examined the persistence of individual's job-search intensity overtime. Research has demonstrated that job-search behavior does indeed change over time (Barber, Daly, Giannantonio, & Phillips, 1994; Saks & Ashforth, 2000), and thus, scholars have advocated for research to examine job-search behavior over different time points to better understand the changes in job-search behavior,

and the level of persistence in one's job-search intensity over time. However, in a ten-wave longitudinal study of 1,136 individuals who were unemployed, findings demonstrated that a cumulative measure of job-search intensity over the ten-wave period *and* job-search intensity recorded only at Time 1 were both predictive of reemployment (Wanberg, Glomb, Song, & Sorenson, 2005). This suggests that one's level of job-search intensity at the start of his or her job-search may be a good indicator of one's job-search intensity over the duration of one's entire job-search process (i.e., job-search persistence). Thus, job-search intensity may serve as an adequate proxy measure of job-search persistence.

Job-search self-efficacy. Job-search self-efficacy is defined by the level of confidence one has in his or her ability to be successful in carrying out a range of job-search behaviors or activities (Saks, 2005). As such, job-search self-efficacy is conceived to be an antecedent, or readiness variable, for engaging in a variety of job-search behaviors. In one study, Saks (2006) found that job-search self-efficacy is significantly and positively related to one's active job-search intensity as well as one's job-search efforts. Furthermore, several studies have demonstrated the importance of job-search self-efficacy in terms of its relationship to a variety of vocational outcomes (see Kanfer et al., 2001). For example, in a study of 225 recent university graduates, Saks (2006) found that job-search self-efficacy significantly predicted the number of interviews received, the number of job offers received, one's employment status, and the perceived person-job fit of one's work. Similarly, in a study among 107 graduate university students, job-search self-efficacy was found to significantly and positively relate to the number of job offers received from a preferred employer (Moynihan, Roehling, LePine, & Boswell, 2003). Additionally, Guan and

colleagues (2013) found that that job-search self-efficacy significantly predicts perceived person-organization fit.

Despite the evidence that job-search self-efficacy is important to employment attainment, only a few studies have explored job-search self-efficacy among individuals who are unemployed. In one study, researchers Schaffer and Taylor (2012) explored the job-search behaviors of African Americans who were unemployed. Results from their study (n = 223) indicated that job-search self-efficacy was significantly and positively related to an active job-search, the use of social networks in one's job-search, and the use of positive coping strategies to manage unemployment, which includes strategies like seeking social support. In another example, Wanberg, Kanfer, and Rotundo (1999) found significant relationships between job-search self-efficacy and a variety of vocational outcomes among a sample of 590 unemployed individuals such as, the number of days one was unemployed, perceived financial hardship, perceived job-search constraints, and job-search intensity. Lastly, in a study among 221 unemployed individuals, researchers Dahling, Melloy, and Thompson (2013) found that job-search self-efficacy was significantly and negatively related to perceived financial strain, and significantly and positively related to one's vocational outcome expectations, as well as one's search goals, which referred to an individual's stated goal to improve his or her work situation.

Taken together, the variables presented thus far seem to be important to the job-search process. Recently, however, there is a growing awareness that the world of work is changing, and thus, there is a need to explore how the context of today's contemporary labor market impacts the variables relevant to different vocational outcomes, including those variables related to a successful job-search process. To begin this process, the following

section will outline the ways in which today's labor market is considerably different from any time in the recent past.

Changing World of Work

Within popular and academic discourse alike, there is a shared belief that the world of work is dramatically changing. Any quick search of the Internet, for example, will uncover countless sources of information depicting the current state of the labor market as being in major flux. Meanwhile, academics have coined terms like “boundaryless careers” (Arthur, 1994) and “precarious work” (Kalleberg, 2009) to describe a hazardous world of work that lacks physical and psychological boundaries. All of this highlights a contrast between the workplace of the past and a new world or work that is defined by uncertainty, job insecurity, and constant change (Szeltner, Van Horn, & Zukin, 2013). Of course, this means the modern-day workers can expect to make a lot more work transitions throughout their lives compared to workers of the past (DeBell, 2006). Indeed, there is no clear answer as to which factors are responsible for this shifting structure of work; however, most of the discussion tends to center on the rise in technology and globalization. As DeBell (2006) states in her literature review of the changing nature of work, “globalization and technology have changed work more than any other factor in the 20th century” (p. 329).

About three decades ago, work in an industrialized United States was centered on mass production (Sweet & Meiksins, 2012). However, starting in the 1980's, the U.S. began the social and economic process of reducing heavy industrial and manufacturing industry, or “deindustrialization” (Sweet & Meiksins). This antithesis to the industrial revolution was fueled by a dramatic increase in computer-based and communication technologies (Blustein, 2006). As a result of this shift, the workplace experienced a rise in automation, which

eventually reduced the demand for manual laborers (Blustein, 2001a; Rifkin, 1995) while increasing the demand for workers with innovation-related skills (e.g., knowledge and intelligence) to operate and develop new work-based technologies (DeBell, 2006). As such, our workplace has seen a dramatic decline in the number of blue-collar, manufacturing jobs that are available, while the number of service, technology-related, and professional jobs has steadily grown (Fogg & Harrington, 2009).

This new technology-based world of work has been defined as the “technology age” (Blustein, 2006), and is characterized by the use of digital technology in almost all areas of the workplace. To fill these increasingly specialized jobs, there has been an increasing demand for college educated employees, and today, there are more people with college degrees in the work force than any other time in history (Dohm & Wyatt, 2002; Fogg & Harrington, 2009; Spreen, 2013). It is even expected that the number of people with college degrees in the U.S. will soon surpass the projected number of high-skilled jobs actually requiring college education (Vedder, Denhart, & Robe, 2013). As a result, there is ever-increasing competition for jobs amongst highly education populations, which leaves many college educated jobseekers unemployed or working in jobs that require a high school diploma or less (Van Horn, 2013). In fact, some estimates suggest that approximately 48% of all employed U.S. college graduates are working in a job that requires less education than they possess (Vedder et al., 2013).

Another outcome associated with the rapid rise in technology is the increasing ease of connection and communication between people and organizations from around the world. This worldwide interconnectedness is what defines globalization. (Williams, Bradley, Devadason, & Erickson, 2013). This process is advancing quickly (Williams et al., 2013) and

is being fueled by an increase in trade, migration, and investment across borders (Robertson, Brown, Pierre, & Sanchez-Puerta, 2009). While some have argued that globalization has had a positive impact on the global economy, and as a result has created better working conditions for everyone (e.g., Gorg, 2011; Robertson et al., 2009), others argue that globalization has had a negative impact on work in developed countries, like the United States (DeBell, 2006; Hall & Mirvis, 1995; Kalleberg, 2009; Wanberg & Banas, 2000). For example, some scholars argue that globalization has contributed to a decline in the presence of labor unions, which has resulted in lower pay and benefits, and poorer working conditions (Blustein, 2006; DeBell, 2006). Additionally, increasing global competition has led employers to outsource labor (i.e., offshoring) where they seek the skills they need at the lowest cost (Kalleberg, 2009). This leaves lesser skilled and narrowly trained workers highly vulnerable to these changes (Gorg, 2011). Furthermore, mass-layoff, downsizing, and implementation of new technologies are increasingly common methods of restructuring for profits to remain competitive in the new global economy (Kalleberg, 2009; Wanberg & Banas, 2000). As a result, jobs are permanently eliminated, and when more labor is needed, this demand is usually met through part-time and temporary jobs, rather than permanent employment (Hall & Mirvis, 1995; Kalleberg, 2009). Currently, contingent work (i.e., temporary work) has been identified as the fastest growing segment in the U.S. labor force (Hall & Mirvis, 1995), and rates of underemployment are expected to increase as we head into the future (U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2008), particularly among college educated populations (Feldman, 1996; Koen, Klehe, & Van Vianen, 2012; Richards, 1984).

Taken together, this brief review of a new and changing labor market highlights the many challenges workers are faced with in today's world of work – job instability, changing opportunity structures, changing work roles and responsibilities, increased competition, and underemployment, just to name a few. As such, workers in this new labor market are expected to traverse these treacherous conditions as they navigate their vocational lives, which means that individuals are increasingly required to take jobs that are less than ideal or undesirable, at its best, and psychologically devastating, at its worse.

The task of people adjusting to these new labor market realities is no easy feat, however, as this requires individuals to compromise on long-held beliefs, dreams, and expectations about oneself and the type of work he or she is willing, able, and ready to take. For many, one's occupation is a public way of telling others who they are, so to compromise between work options that are deemed unacceptable is painful and often does not feel like choice, but rather, barrier to choice (Gottfredson, 2005). A small body of research confirms the mismatch between people's expectations for work, and the realities of the current labor market, particularly among groups of people with higher education (e.g., four-year college diplomas or beyond).

Perceptions of Work in People's Lives

Contemporary views on the changing relationship between work and laborers have highlighted the lack of choice most people experience with respect to the type of work that they do (Blustein, 2006; Blustein, Kenna, Gill, & DeVoy, 2008). This message has gained some attention in the popular media, which has incited debates about the need for U.S. laborers to reclaim work as a source of self-determination for reasons like providing for oneself or one's family, rather than for the popularized career narrative that one should “do

what you love” (e.g., Marino, 2014; Tokumitsu, 2014). Through this critical analysis, concepts like the “American Dream” and the “grand career narrative” – choosing your career path based on your interests and values, working hard, and moving up the career ladder toward greater social status and income (see Andersen & Vandehey, 2012) – are more fully understood as a social phenomenon that is increasingly restricted to a smaller percentage of privileged individuals. In sum, scholars tend to collectively echo the idea that “the traditional concept of career is dead, or, at the very least, in the final throes of a fatal illness” (Blustein, 2006, p. 29). Despite these labor market realities, research findings seem to suggest that many people, across a range of socioeconomic (SES) backgrounds, continue to hold on to the expectation that the American dream and the grand career narrative are obtainable and within one’s control, and that work should be an outlet to express one’s self-concept.

In their 2004 qualitative study, Chaves and colleagues examined the perceptions of work in a sample of 80 poor and working-class urban youth. Results from their (Chaves et al., 2004) study indicated that a large number of the sample conceived of work as something akin to the grand career narrative, or to the idea that work should be an expression of one’s self-concept and that work should also be intrinsically rewarding. In fact, “personal development,” which is described as the idea of working as a means of implementing a self-concept, developing responsibility and maturity, linking one’s education to work, and acquiring new skills and experience, was identified as a prominent theme among the participants’ definitions of work (Chaves et al., 2004). Furthermore, the second most commonly described reason for working in this sample was for intrinsic motivation reasons like doing something that one enjoys. Additionally, the researchers found that these poor and

working-class urban youth were taught by their parents that greater educational attainment would lead to greater occupational prestige.

In another example, Fouad and colleagues (2008) conducted a qualitative study to explore the personal, contextual, and cultural factors that influence career choice in Asian Americans. From their analysis (n = 12), career goals emerged as an important influence on career choice. Notably, the researchers found that the participants' career goals "centered on finding enjoyment and satisfaction in one's work" (Fouad et al., p. 54).

Similar findings have been found in populations with high levels of education. For example, Shane and Heckhausen (2013) examined whether university students hold beliefs and expectations about attaining the American Dream, which was defined by the belief that one will obtain a higher SES than their family of origin, as well as the belief that greater SES attainment is the result of personal factors like effort and ability (e.g., meritocratic beliefs about SES) rather than external factors like luck (e.g., luck oriented beliefs about SES). Consistent with the researchers' hypotheses, the university students in this sample (n = 419) endorsed the belief that their future SES level would be significantly greater than their family of origin, as well as the belief that SES attainment is more significantly a function of personal factors like effort and ability rather than external factors like luck (Shane & Heckhausen, 2013). The authors remarked on these findings by concluding, "for university students, the American dream is still very much alive," and that "these findings are in line with both university students' socialization of meritocratic ideology in American society and their integration into the socially sanctioned route toward status attainment through attending a 4-year postsecondary educational institution" (Shane & Heckhausen, 2013, p. 17).

Consistent with the findings of Shane & Heckhausen (2013), research demonstrates that college, as an institution, increases the intrinsic and extrinsic work-based expectations of the students it serves (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005). While there are certainly countless forces that contribute to elevated expectations of work, a recent analysis of over 300 graduation commencement speeches provides a snapshot of the type of messages that college students are most likely to have received, which includes working hard to achieve a personal dream, and changing the world through your work (Kamenetz, 2014). The myriads of messages college students receive about work and working are likely to influence (at least in part) incongruent expectations about the world of work. For example, in a recent survey poll of 2,015 recently graduated college students, 64 percent of respondents who graduated in 2013 indicated that they expected to work full time in their field of study, which is 11 percent higher than individuals who graduated college in 2011 and 2012 (Accenture, 2013). Furthermore, this survey poll suggests that college graduates' expectations of their starting salaries do not match the realities of the workplace as only 15 percent of 2013 college graduates expected to earn a salary of less than \$25,000, even though 32 percent of 2011 and 2012 college graduates indicated that their starting salaries were below \$25,000. Additionally, 77 percent of 2013 college graduates reported that they expected to receive additional formal training through their employers, yet only 48 percent of 2011 and 2012 college graduates indicated that they received formal, on-the-job training.

Moreover, a recent and growing body of literature has demonstrated that many college-educated adults perceive their work choice as a "calling" (see Duffy & Dik, 2013). While many different definitions of calling exist, scholars Duffy and Dik (2013) provide a multidimensional definition of calling in one's work, which was synthesized from an

extensive review of the literature. According to this definition, calling in one's work is comprised of (1) an external force or summons that is "calling" the individual to a specific type of work, (2) work that is aligned with one's broader sense of purpose in life such that work either gives purpose to one's life, or that work provides an outlet to express one's sense of purpose, and (3) work that contributes to the greater good by directly or indirectly helping people. Within their review of the calling literature, Duffy and Dik (2013) offer evidence that "calling is a salient construct for a substantial portion of college students and working adults" (p. 430). For example, in a sample of 370 university employees, approximately 50% reported that they had a calling in their work (Duffy, Dik, & Steger, 2011), while Hunter, Dik, and Banning (2010) found that two thirds of their university student sample (n = 295) believed that calling was an important factor for how they think about work.

In sum, this empirical evidence paints a picture about the beliefs and expectations people have about work across their lifespan. These findings seem to reflect a greater socio-cultural narrative that through hard work and education, the grand career narrative of climbing the social ladder while working in a well-paying job that is an expression of one's values, interests, and self-concept is the norm in today's labor market. While a few studies have showed the ways in which this narrative is shared among low-income and minority populations (e.g., Chaves et al., 2004; Fouad et al., 2008), by and large, it appears that this narrative is most salient among college-educated populations (e.g., Duffy & Dik, 2013; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005; Shane & Heckhausen, 2013). As such, vast majorities of people who have obtained higher education are likely to find that their views of work and working are incongruent with today's labor market that is characterized by conditions such as instability, lack of choice, and underemployment. The reality is that many people will have to

take jobs they do not want, which has many psychological consequences such as depression (Dooley, Prause, & Ham-Rowbottom, 2000; Friedland & Price, 2003), anxiety (Bolino & Feldman, 2000), decreased self-esteem (Prause & Dooley, 1997), stress, frustration, hostility, and insecurity (Jones-Johnson & Johnson, 1992), while others will not work altogether and become one of the millions of people who are currently unemployed (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2014a).

Need for a New Approach

The previous sections highlight the contemporary challenges workers face, particularly highly educated workers, as they engage in a world of work that is different from the perceptions and expectations they have about the role work should play in one's life. This dilemma is stated succinctly by Blustein (2008), "individuals often dream about having a work life that will be rewarding and meaningful; at the same time, people have to struggle with disappointment in their work lives as they seek to adapt to situations in which they often have little control or autonomy" (p. 232). For example, one study found that workers who were received involuntary pay cuts were at risk for depression and marital dissatisfaction (Zvonkovic, 1988). Furthermore, research has shown that relative deprivation in work, which refers to one's belief that he or she should have, and is entitled to, a better job than one currently possesses, is significantly and negatively related to job satisfaction, and organization commitment (Feldman, Leana, & Bolino, 2002).

For people who are unemployed, or who are actively seeking employment, the discrepancy between jobs that are actually available and one's expectations of working in a job that is an expression of one's self-concept is likely to prevent him or her from becoming (re)employed. For example, in two different studies amongst Israelis who were unemployed,

results showed that men who were unemployed rejected a job offer if the job was considered a feminine sex-typed job (Kulik, 2000; 2001). Furthermore, women who were unemployed in this study rejected potential jobs based upon factors such as job conditions and family considerations, as well as masculine-typed employment (Kulik, 2000; 2001). The findings of Kulik's (2000; 2001) studies highlight the important roles that self-concept and expectations have in influencing whether or not one rejected a job offer, which in this case included job sex-type, job conditions, and family considerations. Indeed, while limited, this research suggests that the expectations that individuals hold about their work-lives will hinder their job-search process. Thus, there is a need to examine this phenomenon in order to move the job-search literature forward.

It appears that a certain degree of psychological flexibility may be required for people to successfully find and secure employment. In particular, people may need to be flexible in considering occupations that do not fit with his or her expectations for work and working. The present study aims to examine the type of flexibility being discussed here, which has been labeled as employment flexibility. In particular, this study will examine how employment flexibility impacts one's ability to find and secure employment. It is expected that higher levels of employment flexibility will positively predict employment status (i.e., whether or not someone is employed), the number of job interviews received, and the number of job offers received. Furthermore, this study will examine the relationship between employment flexibility and the factors previously discussed as important to the reemployment process (career adaptability, job-search behavior, and job-search self-efficacy).

Concepts Related to Employment Flexibility

Recently, scholars have recognized the need for workers to have some form of employment flexibility in order to survive and thrive within the current labor market. Arising from this research are two related constructs – psychological mobility (Forret, Sullivan, & Mainiero, 2010; Sullivan & Arthur, 2006; Vansteenkiste, Verbruggen, & Sels, 2013) and job flexibility (Peiro, Garcia-Montalvo, & Garcia, 2002; Van den Broeck, Wansteenkiste, Lens, & De Witte, 2010). The following sections will discuss these constructs in more detail and will demonstrate the need for a more theoretically and conceptually clear understanding of this type of psychological flexibility that is not attained via psychological mobility, or job flexibility.

Psychological mobility. Psychological mobility is a construct that grew out of the boundaryless careers literature within the organization-behavior sciences. Originally proposed by Arthur (1994), a boundaryless career refers to a new type of work that is the antithesis to “bounded” or “organizational” careers that once dominated the workplace. Boundaryless careers are independent from, rather than dependent upon, organizational career principles. At the time of its conceptualization, boundaryless careers were thought to be a growing trend in the workplace fueled by a dramatically shifting world of work. Six different types of boundaryless careers were originally defined: (1) careers that move across the boundaries of separate employers to work on different projects; (2) careers where individuals gain marketability from outside their current employer; (3) careers that rely on external networks such as real-estate agents; (4) careers that break traditional organizational assumptions about hierarchy and advancement; (5) careers of people who turn down work opportunities for personal or family reasons; and (6) careers based on the interpretations of

individuals who may perceive their careers as boundaryless irrespective of their structural constraints (Arthur, 1994).

Explicating this concept further, Sullivan and Arthur (2006) sought to highlight the idea that boundaryless careers cross not only physical work boundaries (as discussed above), but psychological boundaries as well. This psychological boundary crossing was termed psychological mobility and was defined as “the [perceived] capacity to move as seen through the mind of the actor” (Sullivan & Arthur, 2006, p. 21) across physical boundaries of work. According to Sullivan and Arthur, a career can be viewed in terms of its physical mobility, as well as its psychological mobility. Taken together, “a boundaryless career can be viewed and operationalized by the degree of mobility exhibited by the career actor along both physical and psychological continua” (Sullivan & Arthur, 2006, p. 23).

Although the concept of boundaryless careers, and its dimensions of physical and psychological mobility, was initially conceived as a way of defining new types of jobs that were characteristically independent from traditional organizational careers, contemporary research has isolated the concept of psychological mobility and stretched the concept to the point that it lacks conceptual clarity. For example, Forret and colleagues (2010) sought to study gender differences in psychological mobility, which they defined as the ability of someone who was unemployed to envision a wide range of careers as viable options. Utilizing a cross-sectional research design, the researchers surveyed 1,095 people who were unemployed, and from this data they concluded that women are more likely than men to have psychological mobility, meaning that men perceive less career options than women. However, major conceptual issues in this study call into question the validity of these findings.

In the study, psychological mobility is defined as the ability for an unemployed individual to envision a variety of career options (Forret et al., 2010). However, the authors go on to state, “we examine psychological mobility by exploring *how unemployment is perceived by the individual* [italics added]” (p. 649). It is unclear as to why the authors chose to operationalize psychological mobility – defined as one’s ability to envision a variety of career options – in terms of one’s perceptions of unemployment, as the authors provide no rationale or explanation. Furthermore, to measure this construct, the researchers devised a nine-item scale that asked formerly unemployed individuals to respond to a series of statements in terms of how they perceived their unemployment experience. Responses on this scale ranged from 1 (“Strongly Disagree”) to 5 (“Strongly Agree”). Example items from this measure include: “I felt ashamed and upset all the time,” “I felt I made a positive impact on my children and family during that time,” and “I felt my unemployment was a financial hardship.” A confirmatory factor analysis found two factors in the scale: “defeat” (which captured the extent to which respondents viewed their unemployment as a personal defeat) and “opportunity” (which captured the extent to which respondents viewed their unemployment as an opportunity). Alpha coefficients for the defeat scale and the opportunity scale were .87 and .68, respectively. Although this scale meets initial criteria for reliability, operational issues of using one’s perceptions of unemployment to capture psychological mobility calls into question the construct validity of this scale. It seems that this scale may be tapping into a psychological process that is different (i.e., perceptions of unemployment) from one’s ability to envision a variety of career options (i.e., psychological mobility).

In another study, Vansteenkiste and colleagues (2013) investigated the role of psychological mobility in the job-search process of people who are unemployed. In a cross-

sectional survey study, a sample of 1,840 individual responses to surveys were analyzed to explore the relationship between psychological mobility and job-search intensity, number of job interviews received, reemployment constraints (i.e., perceived job-search obstacles), and number of job offers. Analysis of this sample revealed that higher psychological mobility was related to more time spent searching for jobs, and more job interviews received. To the researchers surprise, however, higher psychological mobility was inversely related to total number of job offers and positively related to reemployment constraints. In other words, as psychological mobility increased, one was less likely to receive a job offer and more likely to experience reemployment constraints. However, similar to the work of Forret and colleagues (2010), this study also has significant conceptual flaws with regards to the way in which psychological mobility is defined and operationalized.

First, Vansteenkiste and colleagues (2013) begin their study by defining psychological mobility as “the extent to which people can envision a variety of career options as viable opportunities for them” (p. 135). However, the authors then state, “we define psychological mobility during unemployment as the unemployed individual's openness towards jobs that differ from his or her previous job (i.e. the job before becoming unemployed)” (p. 136). Later, psychological mobility is defined as the “jobseeker's openness towards different career options, including jobs that deviate from the previous job(s) and/or jobs that are not in line with one's educational background” (p. 136). As these definitions demonstrate, there are noticeable shifts in the way that this concept is conceptualized, which is operationally problematic. In one definition, psychological mobility refers to the ability to envision a variety of career options, while other definitions state that psychological mobility includes one’s ability to envision career options that differ from one’s previous job and/or

their educational training, specifically. Furthermore, the author's method for measuring psychological mobility was not fully explained, which makes it difficult to evaluate findings.

Vansteenkiste and colleagues (2013) provide little information regarding how psychological mobility was measured. The researchers utilized a nine-item scale with responses to items ranging from 1 ("Not at all") to 5 ("Totally") to assess "the extent to which they [respondents] were willing to accept a job that, among others, demanded a significant amount of retraining; offered a lower wage and required more commuting time" (p. 138). Reported Cronbach alpha for this scale was .71. Even at the level of face validity, there seems to be concerns with regard to the authors' method of measuring psychological mobility, as no explanation is given as to why these specific dimensions of a job (e.g., retraining needed, extended commuting time, and low wage) are included in their measure of psychological flexibility.

Taken together, these studies highlight serious concerns regarding the way in which psychological mobility is conceptualized. As such, methods of operationalizing and measuring this construct are confusing and lacking in cohesion from one study to another. This severely impedes our ability to move this line of research forward. Research examining the concept of job flexibility has similar problems to the psychological mobility literature.

Job flexibility. Set within the context of the current labor market, researchers Van den Broeck and colleagues (2010) conceptualize job flexibility in unemployment as "the strictness of their [unemployed individuals] demands regarding their future job, that is, their willingness to accept a job that deviates from a standard job" (p. 298). According to this definition, unemployed individuals who are willing to accept any job are considered highly job flexible, while those who are focused on a finding a specific type of a job are considered

to be low in job flexibility (Van den Broeck et al., 2010). The researchers of this study utilize aspects of underemployment theory (e.g., Feldman, 1996) to operationalize four distinct dimensions of job flexibility. These dimensions include: (1) training flexibility, which refers to ones willingness to acquire new or additional training for a job that is outside of one's field of study or expertise, (2) pay flexibility, which refers to ones willingness to accept a job that pays less than desired or expected, (3) underemployment flexibility, which refers to ones willingness to accept a job that does not require as much experience or education as one actually possesses, and (4) undemanding job flexibility, which refers to ones willingness to accept a job that is considered less challenging or disinteresting. Respectively, Van den Broeck and colleagues report that these types of job flexibility relate to Feldman's (1996) conceptualization of the different types of underemployment one can experience: job field underemployment, pay/hierarchical underemployment, over-education, and skill underutilization. However, this operationalization does not include Feldman's concept of hours underemployed, which is a key dimension of his conceptualization of underemployment that refers to work where an individual is employed below a desired number of hours or that is temporary in nature. The authors provide no explanation as to why hours underemployment was left out of their operationalization of job flexibility.

To measure job flexibility, Van den Broeck and colleagues (2010) utilize a measure that consists of 11 items that allow for responses on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 ("Totally Disagree") to 5 ("Totally Agree"). Of these 11 items, three items capture training flexibility and include statements like "I am willing to accept a job that requires me to follow additional training for 6 months," two items capture pay flexibility and include statements like "I am willing to accept a job that pays less well than usual, given my level of schooling,"

two items capture underemployment flexibility and include statements like “I am willing to accept a job below my level of education,” and four items capture undemanding job flexibility and include statements like “I am willing to accept a boring and undemanding job.” A confirmatory factor analysis indicated that a four-factor model yielded the best fit for the data suggesting that these four types of job flexibility for underemployment are distinct factors. Internal consistency reliabilities (Cronbach’s alpha) of these four subscales were .66 (training flexibility), .82 (pay flexibility), .74 (underemployment flexibility), and .73 (undemanding job flexibility).

In the study, Van den Broeck and colleagues (2010) sought to explore the role in which work values serve as antecedents of these four types of job flexibility. Drawing upon Expectancy-Value Theory (EVT; see Feather, 1982) and Self-Determination Theory (SDT; see Deci & Ryan, 2000), the authors of this study hypothesized that (a) people who are unemployed who highly value employment will demonstrate higher levels of job flexibility across all four types; (b) that an intrinsic work value orientation will be positively related to training flexibility and negatively relate to underemployment and undemanding job types of flexibility; and (c) holding an extrinsic work value orientation will be negatively related to the underemployment and pay types of job flexibility.

The experiment was conducted among a sample of 284 individuals who were unemployed and residing in Belgium. Participants were asked to complete a variety of assessments, which included the measure of job flexibility previously discussed. Control variables included gender, age, level of education, professional level of one’s previous job, length of unemployment, and perceived financial hardship. Correlations demonstrated significant relationships between education level and training flexibility and undemanding

job flexibility, as well as length of unemployment and training flexibility. Furthermore, a series of hierarchical regressions demonstrated that both gender and level of education were significantly related to undemanding job flexibility, such that male participants were more likely to accept an undemanding job than female participants.

Correlational and hierarchical regression analysis demonstrated support for the first hypotheses that individuals who highly value employment demonstrate higher levels of job flexibility across all four types of job flexibility (Van den Broeck et al., 2010). With respect to the second and third hypotheses, analyses found mixed results such that an intrinsic work value orientation (e.g., personal growth, community contribution, etc.) was negatively related to undemanding job flexibility, while an extrinsic work value orientation (e.g., financial success, status, power, etc.) was not related to underemployment job flexibility. Furthermore, an extrinsic work value orientation was negatively related to the pay and training types of job flexibility, but not underemployment flexibility (Van den Broeck et al.).

In a related study, Peiro and colleagues (2002) examined the relationship between a variety of demographic and psychological variables, and job flexibility. The authors of this study define job flexibility as one's readiness or resistance to accept a job that requires flexibility in terms of five distinct job features – poor job content (i.e., being overqualified), lack of opportunities to learn, challenging job demands that require additional education and/or training, self-employment or autonomous work, and jobs that require physical relocation. Antecedents of job flexibility that were examined included age, sex, population of the city in which one resides, level of education, and marital status (demographic variables), as well as labor market perceptions, extrinsic, social, and intrinsic work values, personal initiative, and passivity in career planning (psychological variables). It is important to note

that the authors of this study provide no explanation regarding their decision to operationalize job flexibility according to the five distinct dimensions discussed. Without providing a clear rationale, it seems that these dimensions were chosen arbitrarily and somewhat haphazardly. Given this lack of theoretical clarity, replication and extension of research on this topic is challenging.

The study examined survey data collected in 1999 from 2,512 young individuals living in three different areas of Spain. Statistical analysis of the data demonstrated the following results related to demographic variables. First, age and sex were related to resistance of self-employment such that being a woman or increasing in age is related to less flexibility for self-employed type of work. Second, habitat (or the population size of the city in which one resides) demonstrated significant relationships in four of the five types of job flexibility. Specifically, individuals living in more populous cities demonstrated higher resistance to accepting challenging jobs that required extra training or self-employment, and greater flexibility to accepting a job that he or she is overqualified for or one that does not offer opportunities to learn. Third, level of education was negatively related to job flexibility for jobs that one is overqualified for and jobs that don't offer opportunities to learn, but was positively related to relocation job flexibility. Fourth, married individuals exhibited greater resistance to relocation job flexibility than non-married individuals.

Peiro and colleagues (2002) found the following relationships regarding the psychological antecedents of job flexibility. First, labor market perceptions, which was operationalized by measuring one's belief that he or she will be successful in finding a job that matches their training, experience, and interests, was positively related to job flexibility for accepting a job without opportunities to learn, relocation, or self-employment. Second,

extrinsic work values were positively related to job flexibility for jobs that one is overqualified for and jobs without opportunities for learning, while social and intrinsic values were negatively related to these types of job flexibility. Fourth, intrinsic work values were positively related to job flexibility for challenging jobs requiring additional training. Fifth, personal initiative was negatively related to job flexibility for accepting work without opportunities to learn, and positively related to accepting a job requiring additional training. Sixth, passivity in career planning was positively related to job flexibility for jobs without the opportunity to learn as well as jobs that one is overqualified for, and negatively related to accepting a job that is challenging and require additional training, relocation, and self-employment.

Indeed, both of the constructs discussed thus far seem to be related to employment flexibility, yet psychological mobility and job flexibility lack conceptual and theoretical precision, which has led to conflicting methods of operationalization and measurement. These issues impact our ability to fully understand the ways in which one's level of flexibility in accepting or dismissing a potential job impacts the job-search process. Clearly, there is a need for additional research in this area that is firmly grounded in theory.

Theoretical Foundations for Employment Flexibility

To avoid the same problems found within the psychological mobility and job flexibility literature, it appears important to ground the concept of employment flexibility in theory. To do so, the following sections will review the literature on circumscription and compromise (e.g., Gottfredson, 1981; 1996; 2002; 2005) and underemployment (e.g., Feldman, 1996). This review will help to establish theoretical linkages between employment flexibility and empirically supported theory. By integrating these theories, it is possible to

account for the different person-level and job-level factors that are most likely to influence one's career decisions, and thus, his or her level of employment flexibility.

Circumscription and compromise. According to Gottfredson (1981; 1996; 2002; 2005), career attainment is the culmination of a series of developmental processes where children and adolescents slowly eliminate occupations as viable options for themselves based upon sex-type, prestige level, and self-concept. This developmental process of elimination is known as circumscription, and it happens unconsciously. According to Gottfredson (2005) there are four developmental stages of circumscription that all children go through. The first developmental stage is *orientation to size and power*. It is theorized that as early as three years old, children begin the process of recognizing that “there is an adult world, working at a job is part of it, and they, too, will eventually become an adult” (Gottfredson, 2005, p. 77). The second stage of circumscription is thought to begin around the age of six, and is described as, *orientation to sex roles*. During this time, children begin to recognize a wider range of occupations and begin to categorize occupations based upon sociocultural sex roles. For example, the occupations of firefighter, truck driver, and doctor are viewed as male roles, while the occupations of nurse, teacher, and secretary are viewed as female roles (Gottfredson, 2005). During this stage, children begin to eliminate occupations for themselves based upon these occupational sex type roles. The third stage of circumscription is *orientation to social valuation*. According to circumscription and compromise theory, this stage begins around the age of nine, and involves the increasing awareness that occupations are hierarchically organized in society. In other words, children begin to understand the concept of occupational prestige, and by the age of 13, most children organize occupations by their level of prestige in the same way that adults do (Gottfredson, 2005). By this point,

children organize occupations on a two dimensional scale of sex type by prestige level. Furthermore, children begin to set a “tolerable level boundary,” which dictates whether an occupation is below or above an accepted social level of prestige. At this stage, children will also set a “tolerable effort boundary,” which dictates whether an occupation is reasonably attainable versus those which require too much effort or are beyond one’s scope or ability (Gottfredson, 2005). Following from these processes of circumscription, children have eliminated occupations that are of the wrong sex type, unacceptably low in terms of prestige, and unacceptably difficult or unrealistic of achieving. What children are left with is a zone of “social space” that includes any remaining, acceptable job possibilities (Gottfredson, 2005). In the final stage, *orientation to internal, unique self*, adolescents around the age of 14 begin to think about which occupations within their narrowed “social space” fits best with their personal self-concepts (e.g., interests, aptitudes, abilities, values, and attitudes).

Culminating from the long, developmental process of circumscription is the experience of compromise. Compromise refers to the process of accommodating occupational choice, within one’s social space, to various barriers and constraints. According to Gottfredson (2005), vocational choice refers to the process of weighing occupational options within one’s social space. When one is forced to consider occupations outside of one’s zone of acceptable alternatives, Gottfredson (2005) notes that compromise is difficult and is no longer viewed as choice, but rather as barriers to choice. According to this theory, when an individual must compromise on a desired occupational outcome, the first area to be compromised upon is finding an occupation that fits with one’s personal self-concept like interests and values, the second area to be compromised upon is finding a occupation that

matches a desired level of social prestige, and the final area to be compromised upon is finding an occupation that matches one's sex type.

Compared to other theories of career development and choice, Gottfredson's theory of circumscription and compromise has received much less research attention. From the limited research base, results tend to be mixed in terms of their support for the propositions of Gottfredson's theory. In general, there appears to be support for the circumscription propositions of Gottfredson's theory that sex type, prestige level, and self-concept (e.g., vocational interests, values, aptitudes and abilities) are important in career choice. For example, Taylor and Pryor (1985) found general support for circumscription and compromise among a sample of 287 Australian college students such that students tend to enroll in courses that fit their sex type, followed by prestige level, and lastly, by their vocational interests. Additionally, Gottfredson and Lapan (1997) note that previous research demonstrates that middle and high school students systematically and predictably organize occupations based upon sex type and level of prestige.

Opposition to Gottfredson's theory tends to challenge her thoughts on the degree of importance sex type, prestige level, and self-concept have in career compromise. Hesketh, Durant, and Pryor (1990) do not find support for the compromise propositions of Gottfredson's theory. In particular, this study did not find that individuals would more easily compromise on career interests while more strongly holding on to sex type. Similarly, Leung and Plake (1990) found that college students were more likely to sacrifice sex type than prestige level when confronted with a hypothetical occupational dilemma. Leung (1993) replicated these same findings amongst a group of Asian American college students, suggesting that level of prestige may be more important than sex type, for some, when

making a career decision. In a more current study, Blanchard and Lichtenberg (2003) found that the perceived degree of compromise (low, moderate, or high) influences which factor is most important to career compromise. Specifically, the researchers found that individuals confronted with a low degree of career compromise placed the most importance on interests, followed by prestige, and lastly, sex-type, while individuals confronted with a moderate or high degree of career compromise gave interests the lowest level of importance. However, there was no significant difference in the importance of prestige level versus sex type in the moderate and high career compromise condition.

Despite these potential limitations, researchers and practitioners continue to see the usefulness of circumscription and compromise in application and research. For example, Ivers, Milsom, and Newsome (2012) recently presented the usefulness of circumscription and compromise to improve the academic and career success amongst Latino youth. In their article, Ivers, Milsom, and Newsome (2012) clearly delineate the ways in which circumscription and compromise theory can help explain the high dropout rate among Latino high school students, while also offering intervention suggestions to work with Latino youth at each stage of Gottfredson's circumscription theory. Additionally, Tsaousides and Jome (2008) recently extended Gottfredson's theory by demonstrating that perceived degree of career compromise (low, moderate, or high compromise) is positively related to negative affect, and negatively related to positive affect and work-related satisfaction. In other words, greater perceived career compromise is associated with more negative affect, less positive affect and less job satisfaction. Moreover, Gottfredson (2005) challenges research that opposes her propositions of career compromise by noting, "tests have not been very

informative one way or the other, however, because they tend not to assess well, if at all, individuals' self-designated social spaces" (p. 85).

Indeed, evidence for or against Gottfredson's theory of circumscription and compromise is unclear. With increased research in this area, more precision could be garnered. However, as the theory currently stands, Gottfredson's (2002; 2005) circumscription and compromise appears to offer clarity to the study at hand. Specifically, circumscription and compromise theory provides insight into the most salient person-level factors people consider when implementing their self-concept into their vocational decisions. Following from this theory, it would be expected that an individual's levels of employment flexibility would be influenced by the perceived fit of a job with one's self-concept in terms one's gender identity, one's status identity, and one's vocational interests, values, aptitudes, and abilities. While this theory provides the context for the person-related factors that influence career choice, there are certainly job-specific factors that influence whether or not someone will accept or reject a potential job. The underemployment literature provides researchers with relevant job specific factors influencing career choice.

Underemployment theory and research. Given that underemployment rates are substantial, and are expected to increase as we head into the future (Dooley, 2003; Maynard & Feldman, 2011b; McKee-Ryan & Harvey, 2011; U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2008), it is reasonably expected that more and more people will experience underemployment. Thus, it seems that flexibility to different aspects of underemployment may be an important aspect of employment flexibility that people may need in order to be successful in navigating today's world of work. This proposition is in line with research presented earlier that examined job flexibility in terms of different underemployment

dimensions (see Van den Broeck et al., 2010). However, a more thorough use of underemployment theory is needed because the previous research on this topic did not adequately address the full scope of underemployment theory, which resulted in the exclusion of important dimensions of underemployment. The following section will review the underemployment literature for relevant theoretical considerations to career choice flexibility.

In 1996, Feldman published a multidisciplinary conceptualization of underemployment that was grounded in economic, sociological, and psychological literatures. According to Feldman (1996), underemployment is conceptualized as the result of some kind of discrepancy between one's job, and what one believes to be a satisfactory job. Five distinct dimensions of underemployment were conceptualized: (1) possessing more formal education than a job requires (i.e., over-education), (2) being involuntarily employed in a field outside one's area of formal education (i.e., job field underemployment), (3) possessing skills and/or work expertise that are not being utilized (i.e., skill underutilization), (4) being involuntarily engaged in part-time, temporary, or intermittent employment (i.e., hours underemployed), and (5) earning wages in a job that are 20% less compared to a previous job, or for recent college graduates, earning wages that are 20% less compared to graduating peers of similar education/training (i.e., pay underemployment).

An extensive amount of research has empirically demonstrated the importance of each of these dimensions of underemployment by demonstrating relationships to a variety of vocational, physical health, and mental health outcomes. However, numerous scholars have critiqued this literature base for vast inconsistencies in the ways in which underemployment is operationalized and measured (see Maynard & Feldman, 2011b; McKee-Ryan & Harvey,

2011). This makes it difficult to fully synthesize and compare findings across studies.

However, despite these inconsistencies, a large literature base appears to indicate that all five of these dimensions of underemployment are important and relevant. For example, hours and pay underemployment have been negatively related to depression (Dooley, Prause, & Ham-Rowbottom, 2000), physical health (Friedland & Price, 2003; Sadvana, O'Connor, & McCreary, 2000), and self-esteem (Prause & Dooley, 1997); and over-education, job-field mismatch, and skill underutilization have been found to be negatively related to job satisfaction (Maynard et al., 2006) and physical health (Sadvana et al., 2000).

Taken together, this literature suggests that underemployment is in fact a multidimensional construct, and that each dimension is theoretically relevant. For the purposes of this paper, the underemployment literature seems to provide a practical framework for thinking about the job-related types of employment flexibility people will experience during the challenge of job-searching within today's labor market. Specifically, these job-related factors include: (1) jobs that require less education than one possesses, or over-education, (2) jobs that are outside of one's field of education and/or training, or job field underemployment, (3) jobs that don't utilize one's full range of skills, knowledge, and abilities, or skill underutilization, (4) jobs that are temporary and don't offer the number of hours desired, or hours underemployed, and (5) jobs that do not offer a desired salary, or pay underemployed.

In sum, underemployment theory and research (e.g., Feldman, 1996; Friedland & Price, 2003) and circumscription and compromise theory (Gottfredson, 1981; 1996; 2002; 2005) seem to provide a strong theoretical foundation for the concept of employment flexibility. By synthesizing these lines of research together, one has a modern-day theoretical

foundation for explaining occupational dimensions (e.g., sex-type, status, interest-type, education level, job field, skill utilization, hours, and pay) by which individuals will try to match their needs, expectations, and self-concept to. Given the developmental salience of circumscription and compromise, Gottfredson's proposed factors associated with career choice and compromise (e.g., gender identity, status identity, and self-concept) are theorized as the most important determinants of employment flexibility, and secondary to these concepts are the dimensions of underemployment (e.g., over-education, job field match, skill underutilization, hours underemployed, and pay underemployed). In other words, the underemployment literature augments circumscription and compromise theory by describing specific and timely aspects of a job that an individual compromises between, as long as the job fits within one's circumscribed boundary of options (i.e., their social space).

Summary and Hypotheses

In sum, the current study has conceptualized employment flexibility to capture the degree to which someone is flexible to work in a job that does not meet his or her set expectations or standards across eight person-level and job-level factors (sex-type, status, self-concept, pay, hours, over-education, education-job congruence, and skill utilization). Within today's unstable world of work, employment flexibility is conceived to be an adaptive quality that will help people in the job-search process thereby increasing one's (re)employment success. This may be especially true among recently graduated college students, as this group has elevated, and perhaps unrealistic, expectations of the world of work. As such, it is expected that employment flexibility will positively predict recently graduated college student's employment status (whether or not one is employed), as well as the number of job interviews received, and the number of job offers received. Furthermore, it

is expected that employment flexibility will be positively related to the factors related to a successful job-search process (e.g., career adaptability, job-search behaviors, and job-search self-efficacy). By examining these relationships, this study will provide additional clarity into the initial research questions guiding this study – mainly, how does employment flexibility relate to successfully finding and securing employment? The specific hypotheses to be tested include:

Hypothesis 1: Employment flexibility will be positively related to career adaptability.

Hypothesis 2: Employment flexibility will be positively related to job-search self-efficacy.

Hypothesis 3: Employment flexibility will be positively related to an exploratory job-search strategy, negatively related to a haphazard job-search strategy, and not related to a focused job-search strategy.

Hypothesis 4: Employment flexibility will be positively related to job-search intensity.

Hypothesis 5: Employment flexibility will positively predict the number of job interviews an individual receives.

Hypothesis 6: Employment flexibility will positively predict the number of job offers an individual receives.

Hypothesis 7: Employment flexibility will positively predict employment status.

In addition to these hypotheses, the following exploratory questions will be analyzed. This exploratory analysis should provide additional clarity about the ways in which employment flexibility operates within the recent college graduate population, which will

begin to answer the second research question guiding this study – what is employment flexibility? The specific questions to be explored include:

Exploratory Question 1: Do levels of employment flexibility differ across one's gender identity?

Exploratory Question 2: Do levels of employment flexibility differ across one's racial identity?

Exploratory Question 3: Do levels of employment flexibility differ across one's socioeconomic status?

Exploratory Question 4: Do levels of employment flexibility differ across one's beliefs in the grand career narrative?

Chapter III

Method

Study One

Currently, no measure of employment flexibility exists. As such, Study One was conducted to begin the process of developing a reliable and valid measure of employment flexibility – the Employment Flexibility Scale (EFS). The primary focus of this first study was to develop the items for the EFS and to conduct initial reliability analysis as well as an exploratory factor analysis (EFA).

Item development for the employment flexibility scale. The scale development process began with the creation of the scale items. Items were created based on the theoretical underpinnings of employment flexibility (i.e., circumscription and compromise and underemployment). As such, items were developed to capture one's willingness to work in a variety of employment situations representing the eight dimensions of employment flexibility. The EFS asks respondents to indicate their willingness to accept an employment situation using a 5-point scale (1 = Not at all willing; 5 = Completely willing). This initial item development process resulted in the creation of 61 items, which are presented on the following pages.

Over-education was defined as possessing more formal education than a job requires (Feldman, 1996). Five items were developed to capture one's willingness to accept an over-education employment situation: (1) Working in a job where you possess more formal education than the job requires; (2) Working in a job that does not require as much formal education as you have; (3) Working in a job where the other employees have less formal

education than you do; (4) Working in a job where you have more formal education than most of your fellow employees; (5) Working in a job for which you feel overeducated.

Job-education mismatch was defined as involuntarily employed outside of one's area of formal education (Feldman, 1996). Five items were developed to capture one's willingness to accept a job-education mismatch employment situation: (6) Working in a job that is outside of your area of formal education; (7) Working in a job where your field of education is different from that of your fellow employees; (8) Working in a job where the field of work does not match your degree field; (9) Working in a job where the type of work is outside of your field of education; (10) Working in a job field that is different from the field of your formal education.

Skill underutilization was defined as possessing higher-level work skills and more extensive work experience than a job requires (Feldman, 1996). Eight items were developed to capture one's willingness to accept a skill underutilization employment situation: (11) Working in a job that doesn't fully utilize your skills; (12) Working in a job that doesn't fully utilize your work experiences; (13) Working in a job that is below your level of expertise; (14) Working in a job that is below your level of training; (15) Working in a job that doesn't require as much skill as you possess; (16) Working in a job that doesn't require as much experience as you possess; (17) Working in a job where you have more skills than your fellow employees; (18) Working in a job where you have more work experience than your fellow employees.

Pay underemployment was defined as involuntarily working in a part-time, temporary, or intermittent employment situation (Feldman, 1996). Nine items were developed to capture one's willingness to accept a pay underemployment situation: (19)

Working in a temporary job; (20) Working in a job with inconsistent hours; (21) Working in a job with unstable hours; (22) Working in a job where hours worked doesn't qualify you for benefits; (23) Working in a job where you can't predict yours from day to day (or week to week); (24) Working in a job that cannot provide the amount of hours you prefer to work; (25) Working fewer hours than you want to work; (26) Working in a seasonal job; (27) Working in a part time job.

Hours underemployed was defined as earning 20% less than in a previous job, or (if no previous employment history exists) earning 20% less than people working in a similar job with similar education (Feldman, 1996). Four items were developed to capture one's willingness to accept a hours underemployed situation: (28) Working in a job where you earn 20% less than other employees with similar education; (29) Working in a job where you earn 20% less than other employees with similar experience; (30) Working in a job where you earn 20% less than other employees with similar skills; (31) Working in a job that pays 20% less than what you earned in a previous job.

Sex-type mismatch was defined as being employed in a job that violates one's understanding of his or her sex/gender roles in society. Nine items were developed to capture one's willingness to accept a sex-type mismatch employment situation: (32) Working in a job that does not match your sex-type; (33) Working in a job where you don't feel comfortable expressing your gender identity; (34) Working in a job where the majority of people have a different gender than you; (35) Working in a job where you look different than the other employees; (36) Working in a job where you dress differently than most of your fellow employees; (37) Working in a job where the majority of people have a different sex than you;

(38) Working in a job where your gender is the minority; (39) Working in a job that does not match your gender identity; (40) Working in a job where your sex is the minority.

Status mismatch was defined as being employed in a job that violates one's understanding of his or her social status position in society. Fourteen items were developed to capture one's willingness to accept a status mismatch employment situation: (41) Working in a job of lower social prestige than you have; (42) Working in a job that has low occupational status; (43) Working in a job that does not have a lot of status or prestige; (44) Working in a job where you are the low person on the totem pole; (45) Working in a job where you are more intelligent than most of your fellow employees; (46) Working in a job that requires less intelligence than you have; (47) Working in a job that your family would not respect; (48) Working in a job that your community would not respect; (49) Working in a job that your friends would not respect; (50) Working in a job where you are less intelligent than most of your fellow employees; (51) Working in a job where most of your fellow employees are from a higher social class than you; (52) Working in a job where most of your fellow employees are from a lower social class than you; (53) Working in a job that has more status and prestige than the jobs your family have; (54) Working in a job that has more status and prestige than the jobs your friends have.

Self-concept mismatch was defined as being employed in a job that violates one's understanding of his or her internal, unique sense of self. Seven items were developed to capture one's willingness to accept a self-concept mismatch employment situation: (55) Working in a job where you can't express the real you; (56) Working in a job that doesn't match your interests; (57) Working in a job that doesn't match your values; (58) Working in a job that doesn't match your personality; (59) Working in a job that doesn't match your

abilities; (60) Working in a job that doesn't match your aptitudes; (61) Working in a job that doesn't match your attitudes.

Conducting a content analysis of newly developed scale items is a commonly recommended practice (Lee & Lim, 2008; Worthington & Whittaker, 2006). As such, three different reviewers with varying levels of experience in vocational psychology and career development inspected the initial 61 EFS items for content validity. The first reviewer was a masters-level career counselor with over 30 years experience working as a university career counselor. The second reviewer was a masters-level adjunct faculty member with more than 10 years of experience teaching career development courses to undergraduate and graduate students. The third reviewer was a doctoral candidate in counseling psychology who had completed coursework in vocational psychology research and practice. Each reviewer was provided the definitions to the eight dimensions of employment flexibility being assessed, along with the corresponding items (see Appendix A). Reviewers were instructed to rate each item on a 5-point scale in terms of how closely the items reflected the definition of a particular dimension (1 = Not at all; 5 = Completely). Mean scores for each item were calculated which were used to compare items within a given dimension. Feedback obtained from this content analysis was considered when deleting or refining items. As a result of this refinement process, 22 items were deleted, which left 39 items comprising this initial version of the EFS (see Appendix B). At this point, it was determined that the scale was ready to be administered to a sample for reliability and EFA analysis. Items on this initial version of the EFS were presented in an alternating pattern from the eight dimensions discussed. The first item presented was from the over-education dimension, the second item presented was from

the job-education mismatch dimension, and so on until all eight dimensions were captured. This pattern repeated until all 39 items were accounted for.

Participants and procedures. The sample for Study One consisted of individuals who had graduated from college sometime between the years, 2013 and 2015. All participants were recruited via Amazon’s Mechanical Turk, an online program that connects employers with workers to complete tasks over the Internet. Participation in this study was restricted to individuals residing in the U.S. only. Individuals agreeing to participate in this study were directed to a Survey Monkey link that asked participants to complete an informed consent, followed by a variety of demographic questions and the 39-item EFS (Appendix B). Participants were tracked by storing an individual’s unique 13 digit Mechanical Turk identification code. All study participants received a financial incentive of \$0.50 for completing the survey.

A total of 374 individuals completed the survey. However, 116 individuals indicated that they had never graduated from college, or that they had graduated from college before 2013. Thus, these 116 individuals did not meet criteria for the study and were removed from the sample. Additionally, two “rule-out” questions were embedded within the survey to verify that real people completed the surveys, as opposed to bots. These questions are different from the other survey questions because they have verifiable answers. Incorrect answers to these questions resulted in the participant’s data not being analyzed. The two rule-out questions used in this study were (1) “if you are reading this, please select ‘strongly disagree’ as your response to this question,” and (2) “if you are reading this, please choose ‘not at all willing’ as your response to this item.” Other researchers who’ve used Amazon’s Mechanical Turk reported that incorporating rule-out questions into a survey is an effective

way to “filter out bots [software programmed to run automated tasks] and workers who are not attending to the purpose of the study” (Mason & Suri, 2012; p. 11). A total of 54 individuals incorrectly responded to at least one of the two rule-out questions, so their data were not included in analysis. Thus, the final sample for this study consisted of 204 people. A listwise deletion method was used to handle missing data during data analysis because there was little missing data with no discernable pattern, and the sample was large enough to counteract any concerns of losing statistical power.

Of the 204 participants, 68% identified as male and 32% identified as female. In terms of racial identity, 51% identified as Asian, 35% identified as White, 7% identified as American Indian, 3% identified as African American, 2% identified as Chicano/Latino, and 2% identified as Other. The participants ranged in age from 18 to 59, with a mean age of 25.37 ($SD = 5.10$). Approximately three-quarters (77.9%) of the sample reported their marital status as single, while 20.6% indicated that they were married. Participants also reported on their mother’s and father’s education level with responses ranging from 1 (“less than 12 years [K-12]”) to 8 (“doctoral degree”). In this sample, the mean education level of mothers was 3.93 (Min = 1.00, Max = 8.00; $SD = 2.17$) while the mean education level of fathers was 4.48 (Min = 1.00, Max = 8.00; $SD = 2.15$). Approximately 35% of participants indicated that they were the first person in their family to graduate from college, and among the sample, the most reported college majors were Computer Science, Economics, Engineering, Psychology, and Mathematics. Additionally, 41% of the sample identified as first generation (in terms of residency in the United States), 40% of the sample identified as third generation, and 19% of the sample identified as second generation. Among the 204 participants, 65% reported that

they were unemployed. Moreover, 82% of the sample indicated that they were currently searching for a job.

Study Two

Following the scale development recommendations of Worthington and Whittaker (2006), Study Two was designed to confirm the factor structure of the EFS that was uncovered through an EFA conducted in Study One. Thus, the purpose of Study Two was to conduct a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) on a dataset collected from an entirely new sample of participants.

Participants and procedures. The same procedures used in Study One were applied to Study Two. Although the researcher considered having participants complete additional scales to gather evidence of validity (e.g., convergent validity or discriminant validity), the researcher chose not to include additional measures in the study as scholars have noted that doing so may influence item responses on the measure being developed (see Worthington & Whittaker, 2006). A total of 138 individuals completed the survey and all of these individuals indicated that they had graduated between 2013 and 2015. However, 10 individuals incorrectly responded to at least one of the two rule-out questions (previously described in the “Participants and Procedures” section of Study One) so their data were not included in analysis. Additionally, the 13 digit Mechanical Turk codes were referenced against the sample used in Study One which identified five repeat participants. Data from these five participants were removed from the sample as they had previously participated in Study One. Thus, the final sample for this study consisted of 123 individuals. A listwise deletion method was used to handle missing data during data analysis because there was little missing data

with no discernable pattern, and the sample was large enough to counteract any concerns of losing statistical power.

Among this sample of recent college graduates, approximately 57% identified as male, and 43% identified as female with an overall mean age of 26.33 (Min = 21, Max = 54; $SD = 5.50$). Seventy-eight percent of participants identified their ethnic group as White, 8.1% identified as Asian, 5.7% identified as African American, 4.1% identified as Chicano/Latino, and 4.1% identified their ethnic group membership as Other. In terms of marital status, 74% of the sample reported that they were single, 22.8% reported that they were married, while 2.4% indicated they were divorced. Approximately 72% of the sample indicated that they were third generation residents of the U.S., while 22.8% reported they were second generation residents of the U.S., and 5.7% of participants reported being a first generation U.S. resident. Participants also reported on their mother's and father's education level. Responses ranged from 1 ("less than 12 years [K-12]") to 8 ("doctoral degree"). In this sample, the mean education level of mothers was 4.18 (Min = 1.00, Max = 8.00; $SD = 1.99$) while the mean education level of fathers was 4.26 (Min = 1.00, Max = 8.00; $SD = 2.25$). A total of 30.1% of individuals in the sample reported that they were the first person in their family to graduate from college, and the most frequently reported college majors within this sample were Finance, Biology, Psychology, Accounting, Business, and Education. Additionally, 65% of the sample indicated that they were currently searching for a job, and approximately 31% indicated that they were unemployed at the time of the study.

Study Three

Once the EFS had been subjected to initial reliability and validity analysis, Study Three was conducted to test the hypotheses guiding this study. Additionally, Study Three

was used to gather exploratory information about employment flexibility, and to conduct further construct validation analysis of the EFS.

Participants and procedures. The sample for this study was recruited via Amazon's Mechanical Turk. Similar to the first two studies, participation in this study was limited to individuals residing in the U.S. who had graduated from college within the last two years. Individuals who chose to participate in this study followed a link from Amazon's Mechanical Turk to Survey Monkey where they first completed an informed consent, followed by a demographic questionnaire, and finally, a battery of assessments. To control for potential order effects, the scales used in this study were presented to participants in random order, which was accomplished via Survey Monkey Pro. All participants received a financial incentive of \$0.50 for their participation in this study. Prior to collecting data, a power analysis had indicated that a total of 111 participants would be needed to achieve a high enough level of power (.95) to detect a medium effect size (.30) while running a series of correlation and regression analyses needed to test the hypotheses of this study. A total of 230 individuals participated in this study. Of these participants, 22 incorrectly answered at least one of the two rule-out questions included in the study to verify that a real person was completing the surveys (see "Participants and Procedures" section of Study One for a description of these questions). After checking the participant's 13 digit Mechanical Turk code against the codes collected in the first two studies, seven participants were discovered to have already participated in this study. As a result of prior participation, these seven participants were excluded from the sample. Thus, the final sample for Study Three consisted of 201 individuals. A listwise deletion method was used to handle missing data during data

analysis because there was little missing data with no discernable pattern, and the sample was large enough to counteract any concerns of losing statistical power.

Of the 201 participants comprising Study Three, approximately 49% identified as male while 51% identified as female. The participants ranged in age from 19 to 45 ($M = 25.55$, $SD = 4.58$). In terms of ethnic group membership, 68.7% of the sample identified as White, 13.4% identified as African American, 9.5% identified as Asian, 6% identified as Chicano/Latino, 1.5% identified as Other, and 1% identified as American Indian. Approximately three-quarters of the sample (75.1%) reported their marital status as single, while 23.4% indicated that they were married and 1.5% indicated that they were divorced. In terms of U.S. generational status, 76.1% of the sample reported being third generation, 14.4% reported being second generation, and 9.5% reported being first generation. Parent's education level was assessed on an eight-point scale ranging from 1 ("less than 12 years [K-12]") to 8 ("doctoral degree"). Father's education level of the sample had a mean score of 4.09 with a standard deviation of 2.09 (Min = 1.00, Max = 8.00), while mother's education level of the sample had a mean of 4.12 with a standard deviation of 2.06 (Min = 1.00, Max = 8.00). Approximately 34% of the sample indicated that they were the first person in their family to graduate from college. In this sample, the most frequently reported college majors were Psychology, Biology, Business, English, and Business Administration. Approximately 63% of the sample reported that they were currently searching for a job even though only 33% of participants reported being unemployed. Table 1 (presented on the next page) provides a visual representation of the key demographic characteristics across all three of the studies just described.

Table 1

Demographics of participants across all three studies

Variable		Study One		Study Two		Study Three	
		<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>
Age		204	25.37	123	26.33	201	25.55
Education Level of Father		204	4.48	123	4.26	201	4.09
Education Level of Mother		204	3.94	123	4.19	201	4.18
Gender	Male	139		70		98	
	Female	65		53		102	
	Other	0		0		1	
Race	African American	7		7		27	
	American Indian	14		0		2	
	Asian	103		10		19	
	Chicano/Latino	4		5		12	
	White	72		96		138	
	Other	4		5		3	
	Marital Status	Single	159		91		151
	Married	42		28		47	
	Widowed	1		1		0	
	Divorced	2		3		3	
U.S. Generation Status	First	84		7		19	
	Second	38		28		29	
	Third	82		88		153	
Currently Employed	Yes	71		85		135	
	No	133		38		66	
Currently Job-Searching	Yes	167		80		126	
	No	37		43		75	
First Generation	Yes	71		37		69	
College Graduate	No	133		86		132	

Note: Bolded variables significantly differ between studies.

Measures. Study Three used the following measures: a demographic questionnaire, the Employment Flexibility Scale (EFS), a measure of job flexibility, measures of reemployment success, the Career Adapt-Abilities Scale (CAAS), a job-search intensity scale, a measure of job-search strategy, the Job-Search Self-Efficacy – Behaviors Scale

(JSSE-B), and a measure of grand career narratives beliefs. Each of these measures will be more fully described below.

Demographic questionnaire. All participants completed a brief background questionnaire (see Appendix C). This questionnaire assessed for each participant's age, gender, marital status, college major, graduation date, employment status, job search status, as well as various socioeconomic status (SES) indicators such as the education level of parents, first generation college student status, and generational status as a resident in the United States.

Employment Flexibility. A 25-item Employment Flexibility Scale was used in Study Three (see Appendix D). The scale consists of items designed to assess one's willingness for accepting a variety of employment situations. Responses are recorded on 5-point scale ranging from 1 ("Not at all Willing") to 5 ("Completely Willing"). Higher scores on the EFS and its subscales are meant to indicate greater levels of employment flexibility. Validity and reliability information regarding this measure are presented in the "Results" and "Discussion" chapters of this study.

Job Flexibility. Given that employment flexibility and job flexibility are conceptually related constructs, the job flexibility measure (Van den Broeck et al., 2010) was included in this study to further investigate the construct validity of employment flexibility. In their study, Van den Broeck and colleagues (2010) utilized an 11-item questionnaire to measure four distinct aspects of job flexibility – training flexibility, pay flexibility, flexibility to accepting an undemanding job, and flexibility to accept underemployment. Respondents are asked to indicate their willingness to accept a job that is described in each item. Responses are obtained on a five-point scale ranging from 1 ("Totally disagree") to 5 ("Totally agree").

The training flexibility subscale consists of three items such as “I am willing to accept a job that requires me to follow additional training for 6 months.” The pay flexibility subscale consists of two items such as “I am willing to accept a job that pays less well than usual, given my level of schooling.” The flexibility to accepting an undemanding job subscale consists of four items such as “I am willing to accept a boring and undemanding job.” The flexibility to accept underemployment subscale consists of two items such as “I am willing to accept a job below my level of education.” Reported Cronbach’s alphas for each of the subscales were .66 (training flexibility), .82 (pay flexibility), .73 (undemanding job flexibility), and .74 (underemployment flexibility).

Evidence of construct validity exists in terms of the relationships found between the four subscales of this job flexibility measure and other measures. For example, Van den Broeck and colleagues (2014) found that a measure of employment value, or the degree to which an individual valued having a job and disliked being unemployed, was significantly and positively related to all four subscales of the job flexibility scale – training flexibility ($r = .17, p < .01$), pay flexibility ($r = .19, p < .001$), undemanding job flexibility ($r = .39, p < .001$), and underemployment flexibility ($r = .19, p < .001$) in a sample of 233 unemployed adults. Moreover, a confirmatory factor analysis confirmed that a four-factor model fit the data well.

The author of this study requested a copy of the 11-item measure of job flexibility from the principal author of the manuscript written by Van den Broeck and colleagues (2010). The measure obtained via email was noticeably different from that which was described in the Van den Broeck et al. (2010) manuscript. First, flexibility to accept an undemanding job dimension was referred to as “monotonous job flexibility” and

underemployment flexibility was referred to as “under-qualified flexibility.” Moreover, three items that were reported in the manuscript were missing from the 11-item measure obtained via email. The three missing items included: (1) “I am willing to accept a job that pays less well than usual, given my level of schooling,” (2) “I am willing to accept a job below my level of education,” and (3) “I am willing to accept a boring and undemanding job.” These differences were explained as issues related to translation from Dutch to English language (personal communication Anja Van den Broeck, January 3, 2015). See Appendix E for the job flexibility measure used in the current study.

Reemployment success. Consistent with prior research (Koen et al., 2010; Saks, 2006; Saks & Ashforth, 2000; Vansteenkiste et al., 2013), reemployment success was operationalized by assessing (1) the number of job interviews one has received in the last three months, and (2) the number of job offers one has received in the last three months. To measure each of these variables, participants were asked, “How many job interviews have you receive within the last three months?” and “How many job offers have you received within the last three months?” Previous research has demonstrated construct validity for each these measures. For example, as one would expect, Saks (2006) found that the number of job interviews one received was significantly and positively related to the number of job offers one received ($r = .57, p < .001$). Saks and Ashforth (2000) found a similar relationship between the number of interviews one received and the number of job offers one received ($r = .49, p < .001$). Additionally, Saks and Ashforth found that the number of job interviews one received was significantly and positively related to whether or not one was employed at a four-month follow-up ($r = .25, p < .01$). Furthermore, Saks and Ashforth found that number

of job offers one received significantly predicted whether someone became employed at a three-month follow-up ($\beta = .32, p < .01$).

Career adaptability. The Career Adapt-Abilities Scale (CAAS) was utilized to measure one's level of career adaptability (see Savickas & Porfeli, 2012). This is a 24-item measure that is grouped into four different subscales that capture the four dimensions of career adaptability – concern, control, curiosity, and confidence (see Appendix F). Each item represents a type of strength needed for career adaptability. Respondents are asked to rate how strongly they have developed each of these strengths using a 5-point Likert type scale. Responses range from 5 (“Strongest”) to 1 (“Not strong”). The concern subscale consists of six items such as “Thinking about what my future will be like” and “Planning how to achieve my goals.” The control subscale consists of six items such as “Taking responsibility for my actions” and “Doing what’s right for me.” The curiosity subscale consists of six items such as “Exploring my surrounding” and “Becoming curious about new opportunities.” The confidence subscale consists of six items such as “Overcoming obstacles” and “Performing tasks efficiently.”

Savickas and Porfeli (2012) conducted an extensive study, in collaboration with 18 international scholars, to establish the psychometric properties of the CAAS. This study consisted of four different pilot studies that were conducted across 13 different countries. A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), and a mean and covariance structure (MACS) analysis of all the data collected were used to demonstrate an acceptable model fit across all 13 countries included in this study. According to the researchers “the results suggest that the CAAS measures the same constructs in the same way across countries” (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012, p. 670).

Job-search intensity. This study utilized the nine-item measure developed by van Hooft (2014) to assess one's level of job-search intensity (see Appendix G). This measure asks respondents to indicate how much time they spent on various job-search activities during their job-search process. The job-search activities included on the measure are: preparing/revising resume, reading classified/help wanted advertisements, looking for jobs on the Internet, talking with friends/relatives about job leads, speaking with previous employers or business acquaintances about job leads, contacting employment agencies, making inquiries to prospective employers, sending out application letters, and preparing and going on job interviews. Responses to each activity are measured on a 5-point, Likert-type scale to assess the amount of time spent on each activity. Possible scores for each item range from 1 ("No time at all") to 5 ("Very much time").

As a validity check of this measure, van Hooft (2014) asked their study participants to quantify the amount of effort he or she spent on their job-search, as well as the number of hours per week he or she devoted to their job-search. Responses to each of these items were highly correlated to the nine-item measure of job-search intensity, $r = .56, p < .001$, and $r = .47, p < .001$, respectively. This provides additional support to the construct validity of this measure.

Job-search strategy. Consistent with prior research (e.g., Crossley & Highhouse, 2005; Koen et al., 2010), this study utilized a 16-item measure to assess the type of job-search strategy used by each study participant (see Appendix H). This scale consists of three subscales that represent three common job-search strategy types – exploratory, focused, and haphazard. A factor analysis indicated that a three factors solution fit the data best and that the items loaded onto the respective factors as expected (Crossley & Highhouse, 2005).

Some initial evidence of validity for this scale comes from the fact that the focused and exploratory job-search strategy subscales significantly and positively related to one's job-search length, while a haphazard job-search strategy significantly and negatively related to one's job-search length (Crossley & Highhouse, 2005). Moreover, Crossley and Highhouse (2005) found that the exploratory job-search strategy significantly and positively related to the number of job offers an individual receives, while a haphazard job-search strategy negatively related to the number of job offers on received. Reported internal consistency coefficients for the focused, exploratory, and haphazard job-search strategy were .64, .70, and .74, respectively (Crossley & Highhouse, 2005). The exploratory job-search strategy subscale consists of six items like "I gathered as much information about all the companies that I could" and "I gathered information about all possible job opportunities, rather than setting out for something specific." The focused job-search strategy subscale consists of six items like "My information gathering efforts were focused on specific jobs" and "I targeted my job-search toward a small number of employers." The haphazard job-search strategy subscale consists of four items like "I did not really have a plan when searching for my job" and "My job-search was more or less haphazard." Respondents are asked to indicate the degree to which each item accurately represents his or her strategy for job-searching. Responses are recorded on a five-point scale ranging from 1 ("Strongly disagree") to 5 ("Strongly agree").

Job-search self-efficacy. The job-search self-efficacy - behaviors (JSSE-B) subscale of the job-search self-efficacy scale was utilized in this study (see Saks, Zikic, & Koen, 2015). The JSSE-B consists of ten items that asks respondents to indicate their level of confidence for engaging in a variety of job-search behaviors. Items on this scale include:

“prepare resumes that will get you job interviews,” and “plan and organize a weekly job search schedule” (see Appendix I for a full list of items). Responses on this measure are recorded on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (“Not at all confident”) to 5 (“Totally confident”). Saks and colleagues (2015) have found initial evidence of construct validity and internal consistency for this measure.

Grand career narrative beliefs. Four items were developed to measure the degree to which an individual agrees with the core ideas of the grand career narrative. The four items included: (1) “A person’s job should reflect their identity,” (2) “A person’s job should provide them an opportunity to move up the social ladder,” (3) “A person’s job should lead to predictable opportunities,” and (4) “A person’s job should lead to a better job.” Respondents indicated how much they agreed with these four items on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (“Strongly Disagree”) to 5 (“Strongly Agree”). Higher scores on this scale are meant to indicate higher belief congruence with the ideas underlying the grand career narrative.

Chapter IV

Results

This chapter summarizes the results of the present study. First, this chapter will discuss the reliability and validity analyses (EFA) conducted on an initial version of the Employment Flexibility Scale (EFS-I) in Study One. Next, this chapter will present the results from a CFA of the EFS conducted in Study Two. Lastly, this chapter will detail the findings from Study Three, which tested the seven hypotheses and four exploratory questions guiding this study. Ancillary analyses will be discussed, as well as results from additional construct validation and scale development analysis.

Study One

Reliability analysis of an initial version of the EFS (EFS-I). A reliability analysis was conducted for each of the eight theoretical dimensions comprising the EFS-I (Appendix B). This analysis was undertaken in order to make sure the items cohered together in a theoretically sound manner. The first dimension analyzed was the over-education dimension. Summary statistics for these five items were: $M = 16.87$, $\sigma^2 = 14.81$, $SD = 3.85$. All five items tended to have means of approximately three ($M = 3.37$; $Min = 3.10$; $Max = 3.56$) with standard deviations greater than one ($Min = 1.01$; $Max = 1.19$), suggesting that responses to these items had a good range of variance without being positively or negatively skewed. Cronbach's alpha (α) for these five items was .76, however, it was noted that α would increase to .79 if ITEM1, "Working in a job where you possess more formal education than the job requires," were removed (see Table 2). Additionally, the squared multiple correlation of the first item was .15, suggesting that the other items in this dimension did not predict this item well. Moreover, the corrected item-total correlation for this item was not as strong as the

other items of this dimension. Given these reasons, it was determined that ITEM1 would be removed from the scale.

Table 2

Reliability Statistics of the Over-Education Dimension of the Employment Flexibility Scale

Variable	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
ITEM1	13.3134	11.396	0.322	0.145	0.788
ITEM9	13.7761	8.985	0.615	0.380	0.688
ITEM17	13.4776	9.851	0.570	0.441	0.706
ITEM25	13.3085	9.614	0.664	0.517	0.675
ITEM33	13.6070	10.370	0.508	0.295	0.728

Note: $N = 201$ (listwise deletion)

The second dimension analyzed for reliability was the job-education mismatch dimension, which consisted of five items. Summary statistics for these five items were: $M = 16.19$, $\sigma^2 = 21.03$, $SD = 4.59$. The five items of this dimension demonstrated a Cronbach's α of .86, suggesting that the five items held together well. Overall, the items on this scale had means of approximately three ($M = 3.24$; $\text{Min} = 3.05$; $\text{Max} = 3.48$) with standard deviations greater than one ($\text{Min} = 1.09$; $\text{Max} = 1.19$), which suggests that the items weren't skewed in any direction while also evidencing a good range of variation in response. After examining the item-total statistics (see Table 3), it was determined that ITEM2, "Working in a job that is outside of your area of formal education," would be removed from this dimension for several reasons. First, α would increase to .88 if this item were removed. Second, the scale variance if ITEM2 were deleted would be higher than if any of the other items were removed from this scale. Third, the squared multiple correlation for this item was .25, which indicated that the other items in this scale did not predict this item well. Fourth, the corrected item-total correlation was not as strong in comparison to the other items. Lastly, this item did not

appear to be capturing any unique aspect of the job-education mismatch dimension that the other items weren't already capturing.

Table 3

Reliability Statistics of the Job-Education Mismatch Dimension of the Employment Flexibility Scale

Variable	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
ITEM2	12.7107	15.860	0.462	0.248	0.880
ITEM10	12.8173	14.252	0.681	0.467	0.830
ITEM18	13.1066	13.055	0.767	0.627	0.806
ITEM26	13.1472	13.422	0.716	0.573	0.820
ITEM34	12.9898	13.082	0.767	0.656	0.806

Note: $N = 197$ (listwise deletion)

The third dimension analyzed for reliability was the five-item skill underutilization dimension. Summary statistics for these five items were: $M = 16.50$, $\sigma^2 = 15.83$, $SD = 3.80$. The Cronbach's alpha for these five items was .77, which seemed to suggest that items held together well. In general, the items on this scale had means of approximately three ($M = 3.30$; Min = 3.02; Max = 3.70) with standard deviations of approximately one (Min = 0.97; Max = 1.22), which suggests that the items weren't overly skewed in any direction while also evidencing a good range of variation in response. Item-by-item analysis of reliability (see Table 4) led to the deletion of ITEM3, "Working in a job that doesn't fully utilize your skills." This decision was based upon evidence that the other items of this dimension did not predict this item well as well as the fact that α would not decrease if the first item were removed.

Table 4

Reliability Statistics of the Skill Underutilization Dimension of the Employment Flexibility Scale

Variable	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
ITEM3	13.4010	10.799	0.445	0.337	0.767
ITEM11	13.4901	9.853	0.643	0.463	0.693
ITEM19	13.4307	10.067	0.647	0.473	0.693
ITEM27	12.8960	11.278	0.496	0.516	0.745
ITEM35	12.8020	11.563	0.503	0.526	0.744

Note: $N = 202$ (listwise deletion)

The fourth dimension analyzed for reliability was the hours underemployed dimension. The hours underemployed dimension consisted of five items, which demonstrated the following summary statistics: $M = 15.61$, $\sigma^2 = 15.77$, $SD = 3.97$. The internal consistency coefficient (α) for this dimension was .69, which suggested that these items held together marginally well. Items on this dimension tended to have mean scores of approximately three ($M = 3.12$; $Min = 2.92$; $Max = 3.34$) with standard deviations of approximately one ($Min = 1.11$; $Max = 1.26$), suggesting that responses on these items were not skewed and had adequate variation in response. Based on item-total statistics (see Table 5), ITEM4, “Working in a temporary job,” was removed from the scale. This decision was based on the fact that the other items did not predict this item well, the corrected item-total correlation was weaker than the other items, and that Cronbach’s alpha would remain the same or slightly improve if the first item were removed. Removing the fifth item (ITEM36) from the scale was considered given that this item had a relatively low square multiple correlation, however, if this item were dropped from the scale, Cronbach’s alpha would decrease. Thus, ITEM36 was not removed from future analysis.

Table 5

Reliability Statistics of the Hours Underemployed Dimension of the Employment Flexibility Scale

Variable	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
ITEM4	12.6080	11.482	0.323	0.156	0.695
ITEM12	12.5980	10.383	0.515	0.297	0.611
ITEM20	12.6884	10.599	0.532	0.384	0.606
ITEM28	12.2714	11.219	0.448	0.317	0.641
ITEM36	12.2663	10.661	0.429	0.193	0.649

Note: $N = 199$ (listwise deletion)

The fifth dimension analyzed for reliability was the pay underemployed dimension. The pay underemployed dimension consisted of four items that exhibited the following summary statistics: $M = 10.23$, $\sigma^2 = 15.80$, $SD = 3.96$. Cronbach's alpha for this dimension was .86. Compared to the other dimensions, items on this dimension all had mean scores below three ($M = 2.56$; $Min = 2.43$; $Max = 2.64$) suggesting that responses to these items were slightly positively skewed. However, all items had standard deviations above one ($Min = 1.19$; $Max = 1.28$), suggesting that these items had adequate variation in response. Based on a review of the item-total statics for this dimension (see Table 6), it was decided to retain all four items comprising this dimension.

Table 6

Reliability Statistics of the Pay Underemployed Dimension of the Employment Flexibility Scale

Variable	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
ITEM5	7.5859	9.371	0.700	0.495	0.830
ITEM13	7.6818	8.898	0.741	0.568	0.813
ITEM21	7.8030	9.499	0.724	0.543	0.821
ITEM29	7.6263	9.413	0.681	0.468	0.838

Note: $N = 198$ (listwise deletion)

The sixth dimension analyzed for reliability was the sex-type mismatch dimension. The sex-type mismatch dimension consisted of five items that exhibited the following summary statistics: $M = 16.89$, $\sigma^2 = 21.73$, $SD = 4.66$. Cronbach's alpha for this dimension was .83. Items on this dimension tended to have mean scores of approximately three ($M = 3.38$; $Min = 2.89$; $Max = 3.76$) with standard deviations of approximately one ($Min = 1.08$; $Max = 1.34$), suggesting that responses on these items were not skewed and had adequate variation in response. Overall, the item-total statistics (see Table 7) indicated that these items performed well with respect to reliability. However, it was decided to remove ITEM30, "Working in a job that does not match your gender identity," from future analysis. This item was removed due to issues related to clarity, comprehension, and understanding (this item asked respondents about their "gender identity," while the other four items asked about one's "sex").

Table 7

Reliability Statistics of the Sex-Type Mismatch Dimension of the Employment Flexibility Scale

Variable	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
ITEM6	13.9951	13.777	0.622	0.493	0.802
ITEM14	13.1281	15.459	0.603	0.478	0.806
ITEM22	13.3103	14.215	0.729	0.647	0.772
ITEM30	13.8325	14.516	0.560	0.440	0.820
ITEM37	13.3005	14.498	0.661	0.544	0.790

Note: $N = 203$ (listwise deletion)

The seventh dimension analyzed for reliability was the status mismatch dimension. This dimension consisted of five items that exhibited the following summary statistics: $M = 16.73$, $\sigma^2 = 15.07$, $SD = 3.88$. Cronbach's alpha for this dimension was .72. All five items had mean scores of approximately three ($M = 3.35$; $Min = 2.65$; $Max = 3.83$) with standard

deviations of approximately one (Min = 1.02; Max = 1.27), suggesting that responses on these items were not skewed and had adequate variation in response. After examining the item-total statistics (see Table 8), ITEM15, “Working in a job where you are more intelligent than most of your fellow employees,” was considered for removal as this item had the lowest corrected item-total correlation and the lowest squared multiple correlation; however, this item was retained for conceptual reasons – this was the only item assessing intelligence, which is a key component of Gottfredson’s (2002; 2005) conceptualization of status-related factors contributing to career choice.

Table 8

Reliability Statistics of the Status Mismatch Dimension of the Employment Flexibility Scale

Variable	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
ITEM7	13.7114	9.426	0.519	0.357	0.655
ITEM15	12.8955	11.404	0.384	0.212	0.706
ITEM23	14.0746	10.039	0.461	0.306	0.680
ITEM31	13.0746	10.659	0.477	0.286	0.673
ITEM38	13.1493	10.078	0.558	0.332	0.641

Note: $N = 201$ (listwise deletion)

The final dimension analyzed for reliability was the self-concept mismatch dimension. This dimension consisted of five items that exhibited the following summary statistics: $M = 13.35$, $\sigma^2 = 20.82$, $SD = 4.56$. Cronbach’s alpha for this dimension was .84. All five items had mean scores of approximately three ($M = 2.67$; Min = 2.49; Max = 2.78) with standard deviations of approximately one (Min = 1.12; Max = 1.21), suggesting that responses on these items were not skewed and had adequate variation in response. The item-total statistics (see Table 9) for this group of items suggested that the items performed relatively with respect to reliability. It was decided that ITEM8, “Working in a job where you can’t express the real you,” would be removed from future analysis, as this item did not

represent Gottfredson’s (2002; 2005) conceptualization of self-concept as clearly as the other four items.

Table 9

Reliability Statistics of the Self-Concept Mismatch Dimension of the Employment Flexibility Scale

Variable	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
ITEM8	10.5735	13.556	0.647	0.430	0.808
ITEM16	10.7206	13.532	0.667	0.464	0.803
ITEM24	10.8578	14.182	0.593	0.369	0.823
ITEM32	10.6373	13.966	0.663	0.448	0.804
ITEM39	10.6029	14.034	0.659	0.459	0.805

Note: $N = 204$ (listwise deletion)

In total, six items were removed from the scale (ITEM1, ITEM2, ITEM3, ITEM4, ITEM8, and ITEM30) leaving 33 items to be subjected to an EFA (see Appendix J). Before conducting an EFA, a final reliability analysis was conducted among the remaining 33 items to ensure that the removal of six items did not negatively impact the reliability of the scale. Overall, these 33 items of this scale exhibited good internal consistency in this sample ($\alpha = .94$; $N = 184$).

Exploratory factor analysis of an initial version of the EFS. An exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was utilized to identify the underlying latent factors from 33 items designed to measure employment flexibility (the Employment Flexibility Scale – Preliminary Version [EFS-P]). The analysis was conducted using the principal axis factoring method with an oblique rotation (Direct Oblimin), as there was no assumption that the extracted factors would be uncorrelated. Determining how many factors and items to retain for the final factor solution was based on several considerations including: (1) eigenvalues greater than 1.0, (2)

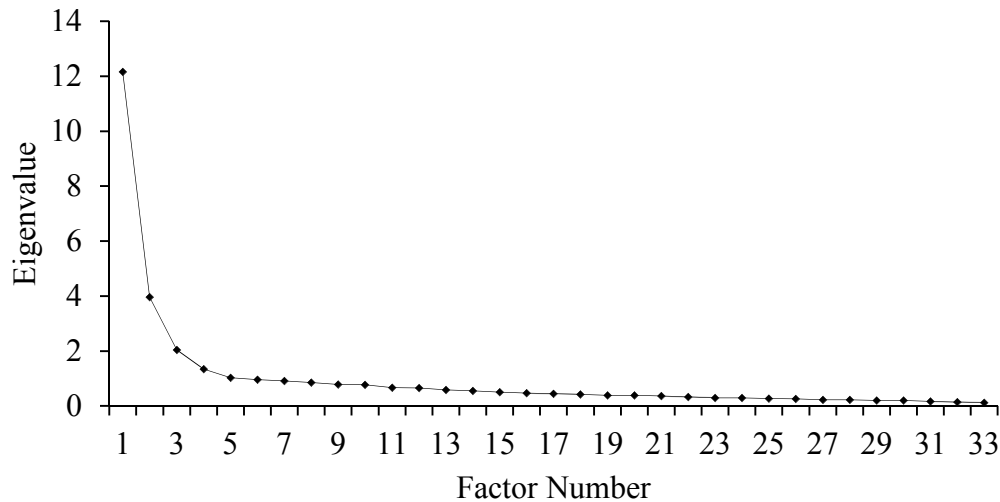
Cattell's scree test, (3) overall interpretability of factor loadings, (4) a factor loading cutoff score of .60, (5) parsimony, and (6) striving toward simple structure.

Before beginning the analysis, factorability of the 33 items was assessed. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was .91, and Bartlett's test of sphericity resulted in significant findings ($\chi^2 [528] = 3773.76, p < .001$). These findings suggest that this data was appropriate for factor analysis.

Five factors had eigenvalues greater than 1.0, which collectively accounted for 55.77% of the variance. Specifically, Factor 1 had an eigenvalue of 12.16, which explained 35.53% of the variance, Factor 2 had an eigenvalue of 3.97, which explained 10.79% of the variance, Factor 3 had an eigenvalue of 2.05, which explained 4.95% of the variance, Factor 4 had an eigenvalue of 1.34, which explained 2.78% of the variance, and Factor 5 had an eigenvalue of 1.03, which explained 1.73% of the variance. Despite having five eigenvalues greater than 1.0, investigation of the scree plot (see Figure 1) suggested that the final factor solution likely consisted of one, two, or three factors, and not four or five factors. Moreover, given that the first three factors had eigenvalues greater than 2.0, it was determined that the best factor solution should consist of one, two, or three factors.

Figure 1

Scree Plot Depicting All Possible Factor's Eigenvalues



The factor loadings of the one, two, and three factor solutions were assessed for conceptual interpretability, and ultimately, it was determined that the three-factor solution fit the data best. A total of 51.26% of the variance was accounted for in this model. Factor one was comprised by items related to one's willingness to accept an employment situation where the features of a job does not match with the experience, skills, and education that an individual possesses, which will be referred to as Person-Job Mismatch Flexibility. Factor two was comprised by items related to one's willingness to accept an employment situation that provides less pay and less hours than an individual wants from a job, which will be referred to as Resources Mismatch Flexibility. Factor three was comprised by items related to one's willingness to accept an employment situation in which the type of employees who work in that employment setting are different from one's self-concept, which will be referred to as Relational Mismatch Flexibility.

After determining that a three-factor model fit the data best, the process of refining the measure began. The following four items were removed as they did not load onto any

factor at a value of at least .60: ITEM12 (“Working in a job with inconsistent hours”), ITEM24 (“Working in a job that doesn’t match your values”), ITEM33 (“Working in a job for which you feel overeducated”), and ITEM36 (“Working in a part time job”). The following two items were deleted for low conceptual consistency: ITEM10 (“Working in a job where your field of education is different from that of your fellow employees”), and ITEM28 (“Working fewer hours than you want to work”). And, the following five items were deleted for reasons related to parsimony and striving toward a simple structure: ITEM17 (“Working in a job where the other employees have less formal education than you do”), ITEM22 (“Working in a job where the majority of people are of a different sex than you”), ITEM23 (“Working in a job that your community would not respect”), ITEM26 (“Working in a job where the type of work is outside of your field of education”), and ITEM38 (“Working in a job where most of your fellow employees are from a lower social class than you”).

After removing these 11 items from the scale, a total of 22 items remained (see Appendix K). Factor 1 (Person-Job Mismatch Flexibility) was comprised of 10 items, Factor 2 (Resources Mismatch Flexibility) was comprised of five items, and Factor 3 (Relational Mismatch Flexibility) was comprised of seven items. Table 10 (found on the following page) presents final factor loadings.

Table 10

Factor Loadings of Each Item with Direct Oblimin Rotation

Items	Factor Loadings		
	1	2	3
ITEM5	0.335	0.735	0.085
ITEM6	0.661	0.221	0.425
ITEM7	0.634	0.396	0.323
ITEM9	0.728	0.398	0.432
ITEM10	0.653	0.256	0.472
ITEM11	0.686	0.359	0.394
ITEM12	0.401	0.521	0.298
ITEM13	0.337	0.816	0.125
ITEM14	0.399	0.016	0.695
ITEM15	0.289	0.177	0.698
ITEM16	0.687	0.507	0.253
ITEM17	0.497	0.261	0.609
ITEM18	0.796	0.282	0.425
ITEM19	0.741	0.371	0.357
ITEM20	0.323	0.618	0.372
ITEM21	0.399	0.751	0.212
ITEM22	0.509	0.045	0.731
ITEM23	0.547	0.600	0.203
ITEM24	0.397	0.599	-0.014
ITEM25	0.493	0.194	0.737
ITEM26	0.748	0.196	0.507
ITEM27	0.448	0.141	0.786
ITEM28	0.187	0.364	0.646
ITEM29	0.464	0.758	0.246
ITEM31	0.413	0.038	0.660
ITEM32	0.666	0.498	0.218
ITEM33	0.495	0.318	0.429
ITEM34	0.761	0.208	0.497
ITEM35	0.397	0.076	0.781
ITEM36	0.276	0.191	0.442
ITEM37	0.490	0.024	0.639
ITEM38	0.522	0.174	0.612
ITEM39	0.652	0.468	0.275

Note: Factor 1 = Person-Job Mismatch Flexibility; Factor 2 = Resources Mismatch Flexibility; Factor 3 = Relational Mismatch Flexibility. Bolded items and corresponding factor loadings depict the final factor solution.

Study Two

Confirmatory factor analysis of the 22-item Employment Flexibility Scale (EFS-22). A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted with Mplus 2.0 to confirm the three-factor solution of the EFS-22 (Appendix K) found in Study One. To run this CFA, a three-factor model was specified where each item was designated to one of three factors. Factor one (Person-Job Mismatch Flexibility) consisted of items 6, 7, 9, 11, 16, 18, 19, 32, 34, and 39. Factor two (Resources Mismatch Flexibility) consisted of items 5, 13, 20, 21, and 29. Factor three (Relational Mismatch Flexibility) consisted of items 14, 15, 25, 27, 31, 35, and 37. Additionally, items representing one of the eight theoretically unique aspects of employment flexibility (over-education, job-education mismatch, skill underutilization, hours underemployment, pay underemployment, sex-type mismatch, status mismatch, social status mismatch) were specified to correlate with each other. Lastly, factors one, two, and three were specified as correlated factors.

Overall, results from this CFA suggest marginal model fit for a three-factor model of the EFS. The Chi-square test of fit was found to be significant, $\chi^2(183) = 381.84, p < .001$, however, many scholars have noted that using Chi-square statistics as an indicator of model fit is problematic (see Quintana & Maxwell, 1999; Raykov & Marcoulides, 2012), and others note that fit should be determined based on an analysis of several indicators (Worthington & Whittaker, 2006). The comparative fit index (CFI) resulted in a score of .89, which is near the .90 cutoff score of acceptable fit some scholars endorse (Bentler & Bonett, 1980), yet clearly below the .95 cutoff score of acceptable fit other scholars recommend (Hu & Bentler, 1995; 1998). The root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) was .09 (90% CI: .08, .11), which is below the recommended cut of score of .10 (Browne & Cudeck, 1993;

MacCallum, Browne, & Sugawara, 1996), yet clearly greater than .05, which is a cutoff score that has been said to demonstrate good model fit (Brown & Cudeck, 1993). Moreover, other scholars have stated that an RMSEA between .08 and .10 indicates “mediocre” model fit (MacCallum et al., 1996). Lastly, the standardized mean square residual (SMSR) yielded a value of .08, which falls within an acceptable range of fit as this value is below a cutoff score of .10 (Hu & Bentler, 1998). In summary, some of the fit statistics indicate moderate to good fit of a three-factor model (e.g., RMSEA and SMSR), while others indicate poor fit (e.g., Chi-square test of fit and CFI). Given that scholars have documented problems related to using the Chi-square test of fit and that the obtained CFI score of the EFS was one one-hundredth below a score some have determined to indicate good model fit, these two statistics do not provide compelling evidence for dismissing a three-factor solution. However, since these fit statistics do not clearly indicate model fit of the three-factor solution specified in this model, two additional CFA’s were conducted to compare the fit of a one-factor solution and a two-factor solution to the three-factor solution.

The two-factor solution tested was derived from the results of the EFA conducted in Study One. The first factor of this two-factor solution developed by combining the first (Person-Job Mismatch Flexibility) and third (Relational Mismatch Flexibility) factors found in the three-factor model, as these factors were highly correlated. Moreover, these factors were conceptually very similar. This new factor consisted of items 6, 7, 9, 11, 14, 15, 16, 18, 19, 25, 27, 31, 32, 34, 35, 37, and 39. The second factor of this two-factor model was exactly the same as the second factor (Resources Mismatch Flexibility) in the three-factor model. All 22 items comprised the one-factor solution investigated here. As with the three-factor solution, all theoretically related items – items capturing one of the eight given dimension of

employment flexibility – were correlated within the two-factor and one-factor solutions tested here. Based on the results of these three CFA’s (see Table 11), it appears that the three-factor solution fits the data better than the two-factor solution and the one-factor solution.

Table 11

Goodness-of-Fit Indices for Three Different Models of the Employment Flexibility Scale

Model	Model Fit Statistics				
	χ^2	<i>df</i>	CFI	RMSEA (90% CI)	SMSR
Three-Factor	381.84*	183	0.89	0.09 (0.08, 0.11)	0.08
Two-Factor	427.01*	181	0.86	0.11 (0.09, 0.12)	0.09
One-Factor	447.69*	182	0.85	0.11 (0.10, 0.12)	0.10

Note: CFI = comparison fit index; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; SMSR = standardized mean square residual.

* $p < .001$

Study Three

The analysis conducted in Study Three was aimed at addressing this study’s hypotheses in addition to conducting further construct validation and scale construction analysis. As previously discussed, three hours underemployment items had been removed from the measurement of employment flexibility following the exploratory factor analysis conducted in Study One (the three items removed were [1] “Working in a job with inconsistent hours,” [2] “Working in a part time job,” and [3] “Working fewer hours than you want to work”). Ultimately, removing these three items – in addition to several others – resulted in the EFS-22 (see Appendix K). However, the three hours underemployment items that were removed from this version of the EFS all seemed theoretically relevant to the measurement of employment flexibility and it was deemed premature to permanently delete these items from the scale. Thus, the three items were reworded for greater conceptual fidelity, and then were included onto the EFS-22 which created a 25-item EFS (EFS-25; see

Appendix D) used in Study Three. These new items were as follows: (1) “Working fewer hours than you want to work,” (2) “Working in a part-time job when you prefer a full-time job,” and (3) “Working in a job with inconsistent hours when you prefer consistent hours.” It was believed that these new items more accurately captured the involuntary aspect of hours underemployed as defined by Feldman (1996), and that they should be added to the Resources Mismatch Flexibility factor of the EFS as this made the most theoretical sense, and because this factor already contained an hours underemployed item. With the addition of these items, the Resources Mismatch Flexibility factor grew from five items to eight items, while the Job-Mismatch Flexibility Factor and the Relational Mismatch Flexibility factor remained exactly the same. Results obtained in Study Three were analyzed by comparing findings across the EFS-25 and the EFS-22. Thus, discussion of results will include findings obtained using both of these measures of employment flexibility.

Reliability and construct validation of the EFS. An additional confirmatory analysis (CFA) was conducted in this new sample to demonstrate further construct validity for a three-factor structure of employment flexibility. Both versions of the EFS were subjected to this CFA analysis. For the EFS-22, the model specified was exactly the same as specified in Study Two. The model specified for the EFS-25 followed the same procedures, except that the second factor (Resources Mismatch Flexibility) was specified to contain the three added hours underemployed items. Table 12 presents the results from these CFA’s.

Results are very similar to the CFA results found in Study Two, which indicates that a three-factor solution fits the data for both versions of the EFS. When comparing the results of the EFS-22 and the EFS-25, it seems that these scales perform nearly similarly. More specifically, the two versions of the EFS had identical CFI scores. Furthermore, although the

EFS-25 had a slightly lower RMSEA than the EFS-22, the EFS-25 had a slightly greater SRMR than the EFS-22.

Table 12

Goodness-of-Fit Indices for the 22-item and the 25-item Employment Flexibility Scales

Scale Version	Model Fit Statistics				
	χ^2	<i>df</i>	CFI	RMSEA (90% CI)	SMSR
22-item EFS	524.38*	183	0.88	0.10 (0.09, 0.11)	0.07
25-item EFS	636.56*	243	0.88	0.09 (0.08, 0.10)	0.08

Note: CFI = comparison fit index; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; SMSR = standardized mean square residual.

* $p < .001$

The internal consistencies of both versions of the EFS were examined as well. The EFS-25 has a slightly higher overall internal consistency coefficient (α) than the EFS-22 (.94 compared to .93). However, the 5-item Resources Mismatch Flexibility factor on the EFS-22 demonstrated greater internal consistency than the 8-item Resources Mismatch Flexibility factor on the EFS-25 (.89 compared to .82). Taken collectively, initial evidence of validity and reliability seem to suggest that both versions of the EFS served as satisfactory measures of employment flexibility.

Descriptive statistics and correlations. Mean scores and standard deviations of the primary variables are presented in Table 13. Additionally, bivariate correlations of the primary variables and internal consistency coefficients can be found in Table 14. In general, relationships among the primary variables were observed in ways that were to be expected. For example, like others (e.g., Saks, 2006; Saks & Ashforth, 2000), results indicate that the number of job interviews one receives is strongly related to the number of job offers one receives ($r = .53, p < .001$). Moreover, this study replicates the findings of Guerro and Rothstein (2012) and Saks (2006) that job-search intensity is significantly and positively

Table 13

Descriptive Statistics of Primary Variables

Variable	N	Min	Max	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Interviews	201	0.00	20.00	2.35	3.01
Offers	201	0.00	12.00	0.96	1.53
CA	189	2.00	5.00	3.93	0.57
CA-Concern	198	1.50	5.00	3.88	0.68
CA-Control	195	2.00	5.00	3.90	0.70
CA-Curiosity	201	1.83	5.00	3.88	0.65
CA-Confidence	198	2.00	5.00	4.05	0.66
JSI	194	1.00	5.00	3.37	0.77
JF	189	1.09	5.00	2.85	0.76
JF-T	195	1.00	5.00	3.37	0.79
JF-M	195	1.00	5.00	2.53	0.92
JF-U	201	1.00	5.00	2.93	1.11
JF-P	200	1.00	5.00	2.58	1.11
JSSE-B	186	1.50	5.00	3.40	0.70
JSS-H	197	1.00	5.00	2.58	0.91
JSS-E	195	1.00	5.00	3.50	0.80
JSS-F	199	1.00	5.00	3.43	0.75
EFS-22	183	1.00	5.00	3.12	0.73
EFS-25	178	1.00	5.00	3.07	0.73
EFS-F1	194	1.00	5.00	3.09	0.85
EFS-F2 (22-item)	193	1.00	5.00	2.37	0.98
EFS-F2 (25-item)	188	1.00	5.00	2.50	0.91
EFS-F3	194	1.00	5.00	3.66	0.84
GCN	201	2.00	5.00	3.79	0.61

Note: Interviews = number of job interviews received within last three months; Offers = number of job offers received within the last three months; CA = career adaptability; JSI = job-search intensity; JF = job flexibility; JF-T = job flexibility- training; JF-M = job flexibility-monotonous; JF-U = job flexibility-underqualified; JF-P = job flexibility-underpaid; JSSE-B = job-search self-efficacy – behavior; JSS-H = job-search strategy-haphazard; JSS-E = job-search strategy-exploratory; JSS-F = job-search strategy-focused; EFS-22 = 22-item employment flexibility scale; EFS-25 = 25-item employment flexibility scale; EFS-F1 = employment flexibility scale-factor one (Person-Job Mismatch Flexibility); EFS-F2 = employment flexibility scale-factor two (Resources Mismatch Flexibility); EFS-F3 = employment flexibility scale-factor three (Relational Mismatch Flexibility); GCN = grand career narrative beliefs.

Table 14

Correlations and Internal Consistencies Among Primary Variables

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Interviews	-											
2. Offers	.53+	-										
3. CA	.20**	.13	(.94)									
4. CA-Concern	.13	.08	.78+	(.85)								
5. CA-Control	.21**	.11	.85+	.48+	(.84)							
6. CA-Curiosity	.14*	.10	.85+	.54+	.65+	(.83)						
7. CA-Confidence	.15*	.13	.87+	.56+	.70+	.66+	(.88)					
8. JSI	.27+	.15*	.45+	.34+	.42+	.36+	.36+	(.82)				
9. JF	-.04	-.09	.05	.05	.00	.02	.07	.19*	(.84)			
10. JF-T	-.06	.02	.26+	.32+	.13	.18*	.22**	.21**	.61+	(.36)		
11. JF-M	-.06	-.11	-.08	-.03	-.07	-.10	-.07	.11	.87+	.34+	(.56)	
12. JF-U	-.01	-.09	.08	.00	.07	.10	.11	.21**	.86+	.42+	.65+	(.78)
13. JF-P	.04	-.03	-.09	-.16*	-.08	-.04	-.04	.07	.78+	.27+	.58+	.68+
14. JSSE-B	.23+	.25+	.59+	.44+	.54+	.47+	.52+	.42+	.01	.19*	-.06	.00
15. JSS-H	-.01	.12	-.09	-.14	-.08	.01	-.11	.16*	.11	-.01	.11	.12
16. JSS-E	.22**	.16*	.46+	.41+	.37+	.39+	.35+	.60+	.16*	.30+	.06	.17*
17. JSS-F	-.02	.09	.19**	.20**	.17*	.16*	.13	.02	-.06	.18*	-.10	-.11
18. EF (22 items)	.06	.01	.08	.03	.02	.13	.11	.17*	.70+	.42+	.51+	.71+
19. EF (25 items)	.08	.02	.10	.03	.03	.15*	.13	.19*	.73+	.43+	.56+	.72+
20. EF-F1	.03	.01	.07	.01	.01	.11	.10	.19*	.71+	.43+	.54+	.71+
21. EF-F2 (5 items)	.10	.00	-.11	-.11	-.12	-.03	-.09	.13	.56+	.10	.49+	.53+
22. EF-F2 (8 items)	.11	.00	-.02	-.06	-.05	.06	-.01	.16*	.62+	.19**	.55+	.58+
23. EF-F3	.03	.00	.22**	.15*	.15*	.22**	.25+	.08	.38+	.42+	.19+	.45+
24. GCN	.10	.07	.29+	.34+	.20**	.29+	.14*	.11	-.06	.12	-.04	-.12

Table 14 (Continued)

Correlations and Internal Consistencies Among Primary Variables

Variable	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24
13. JF-P	(.80)											
14. JSSE-B	-.10	(.85)										
15. JSS-H	.10	-.09	(.76)									
16. JSS-E	.11	.44+	-.06	(.81)								
17. JSS-F	-.04	.23**	.09	.10	(.77)							
18. EFS-22	.61+	.02	.12	.23**	-.07	(.93)						
19. EFS-25	.62+	.03	.10	.26+	-.09	.99+	(.94)					
20. EFS-F1	.57+	.02	.13	.21**	-.08	.94+	.93+	(.89)				
21. EFS-F2 (5 items)	.64+	-.11	.22**	.09	-.05	.71+	.74+	.59+	(.89)			
22. EFS-F2 (8 items)	.64+	-.06	.18*	.14	-.07	.74+	.80+	.63+	.96+	(.82)		
23. EFS-F3	.25+	.12	-.07	.25+	.00	.77+	.75+	.62+	.26+	.32+	(.90)	
24. GCN	-.08	.28+	.18*	.18*	.29+	-.02	-.04	-.07	.00	-.03	.03	(.68)

Note: Interviews = number of job interviews received within last three months; Offers = number of job offers received within the last three months; CA = career adaptability; JSI = job-search intensity; JF = job flexibility; JF-T = job flexibility- training; JF-M = job flexibility-monotonous; JF-U = job flexibility-underqualified; JF-P = job flexibility-underpaid; JSSE-B = job-search self-efficacy – behavior; JSS-H = job-search strategy-haphazard; JSS-E = job-search strategy-exploratory; JSS-F = job-search strategy-focused; EFS-22 = 22-item employment flexibility scale; EFS-25 = 25-item employment flexibility scale; EFS-F1 = employment flexibility scale-factor one (Person-Job Mismatch Flexibility); EFS-F2 = employment flexibility scale-factor two (Resources Mismatch Flexibility); EFS-F3 = employment flexibility scale-factor three (Relational Mismatch Flexibility); GCN = grand career narrative beliefs.

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

+ $p < .001$

related to the number of job interviews one receives ($r = .27, p < .001$) as well as the number of job offers one receives ($r = .15, p < .05$). Findings also suggest that job-search intensity is significantly related to an exploratory job-search strategy ($r = .60, p < .001$), which has been previously reported by Koen and colleagues (2010). Additionally, the relationships found between job-search self-efficacy and the number of interviews one receives ($r = .23, p < .001$) as well as the number of job offers one receives ($r = .25, p < .001$) replicates the work of Moynihan and colleagues (2003) as well as Saks (2006). In terms of job-search strategies, this study found a significant and positive relationship between an exploratory job-search strategy and the number of job offers one receives ($r = .16, p < .05$) which replicates the findings of Crossley and Highhouse (2005) as well as Koen and colleagues (2010).

Moreover, this study found similar relationships between an exploratory job-search strategy and the various dimensions of career adaptability, as others have previously noted (e.g., Koen et al., 2010). This study also found a significant and positive relationship between career adaptability and job-search self-efficacy ($r = .59, p < .001$) as well as job-search intensity ($r = .45, p < .001$), which has been previously reported (see Guan et al., 2014; Koen et al., 2010). Lastly, this study replicates the work of Saks (2006) and Wanberg, Kanfer, and Rotundo (1999) in terms of the relationship between job-search self-efficacy and job-search intensity ($r = .42, p < .001$).

Although not previously reported, the significant and positive relationships found between the number of job interviews one receives and career adaptability ($r = .20, p < .01$), career control ($r = .21, p < .01$), career curiosity ($r = .14, p < .05$), and career confidence ($r = .15, p < .05$) are to be expected as others have noted that career adaptability plays an important role in determining whether or not someone is employed (Guan et al., 2014).

Moreover, although not previously reported, the significant and positive relationship between an exploratory job-search strategy and the number of job interviews one receives ($r = .22, p < .01$) is to be expected as scholars have demonstrated that an exploratory job-search strategy positively predicts the number of job offers one receives (see Koen et al., 2010). Lastly, the significant and positive relationships between job-search self-efficacy and an exploratory job-search strategy ($r = .44, p < .001$) as well as a focused job-search strategy ($r = .23, p < .01$) have not been previously investigated, however the results appear to make theoretical sense as one would expect someone with higher levels of job-search self-efficacy to engage in job-search strategies other than haphazard ($r = -.09, p > .05$).

Tests of hypotheses. Hypothesis 1 stated that employment flexibility would be positively related to career adaptability. Based on the correlational analysis presented in Table 14, employment flexibility is positively related to career adaptability, albeit the relationship is rather weak and statistically insignificant. These findings are true for the EFS-22 $r = .08, p > .05$ as well as the EFS-25 $r = .10, p > .05$. Since these relationships were non-significant, Hypothesis 1 was not supported. Noteworthy, however, are statistically significant results found in exploratory analysis conducted between the Relational Mismatch Flexibility factor of the EFS and career adaptability ($r = .22, p < .01$), career concern ($r = .15, p < .05$), career control ($r = .15, p < .05$), career curiosity ($r = .22, p < .01$), and career confidence ($r = .25, p < .001$).

Hypothesis 2 stated that employment flexibility will be positively related to job-search self-efficacy. Correlational analysis (see Table 14) does not support this hypothesis as Pearson's r is virtually zero between job-search self-efficacy and the EFS-22 ($r = .02, p > .05$) as well as the EFS-25 ($r = .03, p > .05$). Moreover, none of the three specific factors of

employment flexibility exhibited significant, positive relationships with job-search self-efficacy.

Hypothesis 3 stated that employment flexibility would be positively related to an exploratory job-search strategy, negatively related to a haphazard job-search strategy, and not related to a focused job-search strategy. As hypothesized correlations (see Table 14) indicate that employment flexibility is significantly and positively related to an exploratory job-search strategy for the EFS-22 ($r = .23, p < .01$) as well as the EFS-25 ($r = .26, p < .001$).

Additionally, as hypothesized, there was no relationship between employment flexibility and a focused job-search strategy for the EFS-22 ($r = -.07, p > .05$) as well as the EFS-25 ($r = -.09, p > .05$). However, the hypothesized negative relationship between a haphazard job-search and employment flexibility was not supported. Pearson's r between the haphazard job-search measure and the EFS-22 and the EFS-25 were .12 and .10, respectively (both p 's $> .05$).

Exploratory analysis examined the three specific factors of employment flexibility and their relationships to the various job-search strategies, several significant relationships were found. Results indicate that an exploratory job-search strategy is significantly and positively related to the Person-Job Mismatch Flexibility factor ($r = .21, p < .01$) as well as the Relational Mismatch Flexibility factor ($r = .25, p < .001$). Meanwhile, a haphazard job-search strategy is significantly related to the Resources Mismatch Flexibility factor when measured with the EFS-22 ($r = .22, p < .01$) as well as the EFS-25 ($r = .18, p < .05$). Taken collectively, these findings provide partial support for Hypothesis 3.

Hypothesis 4 stated that employment flexibility would be positively related to job-search intensity. Results from the correlational analysis (see Table 14) support this

hypothesis. Using the EFS-22, the relationship between employment flexibility and job-search intensity was positive and significant ($r = .17, p < .05$). A similar relationship was found between the EFS-25 and job-search intensity ($r = .19, p < .05$). Additional exploratory analysis found that the Person-Job Mismatch Flexibility factor ($r = .25, p < .05$) and the Resources Mismatch Flexibility factor significantly and positively related to EFS-25 ($r = .16, p < .05$).

Hypothesis 5 stated that employment flexibility would positively predict the number of job interviews an individual receives. The relationship between employment flexibility and the number of job interviews an individual received within the last three months was non-significant across both versions of the EFS ($r = .06, p > .05$ for the EFS-22; $r = .08, p > .05$ for the EFS-25). Additionally, non-significant relationships were found between the number of interviews one receives and the three factors of employment flexibility. Lastly, a linear regression analysis was conducted to examine whether any of the three factors of employment flexibility would predict the number of job interviews one received in the last three months. All three factors of employment flexibility were simultaneously included in the linear regression, which produced non-significant results for the EFS-22 ($F(3,179) = .758, p > .05$) as well as the EFS-25 ($F(3,174) = .836, p > .05$). Thus, findings do not support Hypothesis 5.

Hypothesis 6 stated that employment flexibility would positively predict the number of job offers an individual receives. Results obtained from the correlational analysis (see Table 14) do not show a relationship between employment flexibility and the number of job offers an individual has received within the last three months ($r = .01, p > .05$ for the EFS-22; $r = .02, p > .05$ for the EFS-25). Furthermore, there was no statistically significant

relationship between the number of job offers one receives and the three specific factors of employment flexibility. A linear regression was conducted using all three factors of employment flexibility in a single step across both versions of the EFS to predict the number of job offers one receives. Across both versions of the EFS, results were non-significant. When using the EFS-22, results came back as $F(3,179) = .016, p > .05$, and when using the EFS-25, results came back as $F(3,173) = .034, p > .05$. Taken together, results do not provide support for Hypothesis 6.

Lastly, Hypothesis 7 stated that employment flexibility would positively predict employment status. Results from an independent samples t-test indicated that there was no difference in levels of employment flexibility between individuals who were employed at the time of this study (coded as “1”) versus individuals who were unemployed at the time of this study (coded as “0”). This was true for the EFS-22 ($t[181] = -1.552, p = .123$) as well as the EFS-25 ($t[176] = -1.558, p = .121$). Thus, results from this study do not support Hypothesis 7.

Analysis of exploratory questions. In addition to the seven hypotheses just discussed, this study was guided by several exploratory questions to better understand some of the fundamental properties of employment flexibility. Overall, these questions were aimed at exploring any group differences that may exist in terms of levels of employment flexibility. No assumptions or hypotheses were made regarding these exploratory questions.

Exploratory Question 1 asked if there were gender differences in employment flexibility. A participant’s self-reported gender was dummy coded as 1 = male, 2 = female, and 3 = other. A one-way ANOVA was used to determine if there were group differences between gender (IV) and levels of employment flexibility (DV). Results were non-significant

for the EFS-22 ($F[2, 180] = .918, p = .401$) as well as the EFS-25 ($F[2, 175] = .511, p = .601$). These findings suggest that there were no differences in levels of employment flexibility in terms of one's gender.

Exploratory Question 2 asked if there were differences in employment flexibility across one's ethnic group membership. A participant's self-reported ethnic group membership was coded as follows: 1 = African American, 2 = American Indian, 3 = Asian, 4 = Chicano/Latino, 5 = White, and 6 = Other. A one-way ANOVA compared the effects of ethnic group membership (IV) on levels of employment flexibility (DV). Results were non-significant for the EFS-22 ($F[5, 177] = 1.155, p = .334$) as well as the EFS-25 ($F[5, 172] = 1.272, p = .278$). These results seem to indicate that there were no differences in level of employment flexibility across different ethnic groups.

Exploratory Question 3 asked if there were differences in employment flexibility across socioeconomic status. In this study, no single variable was used to capture SES; rather, several different sociological indicators thought to represent one's SES were measured as proxy variables of SES. These variables included: (1) education level of father, (2) education level of mother, (3) U.S. generational status, and (4) college student generational status.

To test for differences in employment flexibility in terms of father's education level, a new transformed variable was developed to create three groups (low, middle, and high) of varying education levels. These groups were based on mean scores and standard deviations of the sample. For father's education level ($M = 4.09, SD = 2.09, \text{Min} = 1, \text{Max} = 8$), scores ranging from 1 to 2 were coded as "1" (low levels of education), scores ranging from 2.1 to 6.18 were coded as "2" (middle levels of education), and scores ranging from 6.19 to 8 were

coded as “3” (high levels of education). This transformed variable was entered into a one-way ANOVA as the independent variable with employment flexibility as the dependent variable. Results were non-significant for the EFS-22 ($F[2, 180] = .329, p = .720$) as well as the EFS-25 ($F[2, 175] = .277, p = .758$). These results indicate that levels of employment flexibility do not differ by father’s level of education.

To test for differences in employment flexibility in terms of mother’s education level, a new transformed variable was developed to create three groups (low, middle, and high) of varying education levels. These groups were based on mean scores and standard deviations of the sample. For mother’s education level ($M = 4.18, SD = 2.06, \text{Min} = 1, \text{Max} = 8$), scores ranging from 1 to 2.12 were coded as “1” (low levels of education), scores ranging from 2.13 to 6.24 were coded as “2” (middle levels of education), and scores ranging from 6.25 to 8 were coded as “3” (high levels of education). This transformed variable was entered into a one-way ANOVA as the independent variable with employment flexibility as the dependent variable. Results were non-significant for the EFS-22 ($F[2, 180] = .254, p = .776$) as well as the EFS-25 ($F[2, 175] = .470, p = .626$). These results indicate that levels of employment flexibility do not differ by mother’s level of education.

One’s U.S. generational status was coded as “1” (first generation), “2” (second generation), and “3” (third generation). A one-way ANOVA compared the effects of one’s U.S. generation status (IV) on levels of employment flexibility (DV). Results were non-significant for the EFS-22 ($F[2, 180] = 2.070, p = .129$) as well as the EFS-25 ($F[2, 175] = 1.775, p = .172$). These results seem to indicate that there were no differences in level of employment flexibility across one’s U.S. generation status.

College generational status was coded as “1” (first generation college student) and “0” (non-first generation college student). An independent samples t-test was used to compare levels of employment flexibility between first generation college students and non-first generation college students. Results from this analysis were non-significant when using the EFS-22 ($t[181] = 1.197, p = .233$) as well as the EFS-25 ($t[176] = 1.254, p = .212$). These results seem to indicate that there were no differences in level of employment flexibility between first generation college students and non-first generation college students.

In sum, none of the four variables used in this study to represent SES (e.g., father’s education level, mother’s education level, U.S. generational status, and college generational status) found significant results in terms of differences in levels of employment flexibility across groups. Taken collectively, these results are quite suggestive that one’s SES does not have an effect on one’s level of employment flexibility.

Lastly, Exploratory Question 4 asked if there were differences in levels of employment flexibility based on one’s belief in the ideas comprising the grand career narrative. To test for differences in employment flexibility in terms of one’s grand career narrative beliefs, a new transformed variable was developed to create three groups representing low, middle, and high congruence of beliefs in the grand career narrative. These groups were based on mean scores and standard deviations of the sample. For grand career narrative beliefs ($M = 3.79, SD = .61, \text{Min} = 1, \text{Max} = 5$), scores ranging from 1 to 3.18 were coded as “1” (low level of congruence with the grand career narrative), scores ranging from 3.19 to 4.4 were coded as “2” (middle level of congruence with the grand career narrative), and scores ranging from 4.5 to 5 were coded as “3” (high level of congruence with the grand career narrative). This transformed variable was entered into a one-way ANOVA as the

independent variable with employment flexibility as the dependent variable. Results were non-significant for the EFS-22 ($F[2, 180] = .177, p = .838$) as well as the EFS-25 ($F[2, 175] = .289, p = .749$). These results indicate that levels of employment flexibility do not differ by one's grand career narrative beliefs.

Additional analysis of construct validity. Analysis of convergent validity was undertaken as a way of providing additional construct validation for the EFS. This was done by comparing findings across the two versions of the EFS with the measure of job flexibility. Theoretically, employment flexibility and job flexibility are very similar, thus, evidence of convergent validity would arise if there were strong relationships between these two measures, and if these two measures operated similarly in terms of their relationships with other variables.

Correlations between job flexibility and employment flexibility all tended to be fairly strong and significant (see Table 14). Specifically, one's overall job flexibility score significantly and positively correlates with one's overall employment flexibility score as measured by the EFS-22 ($r = .70, p < .001$) and by the EFS-25 ($r = .73, p < .001$). Moreover, theoretically related dimensions of job flexibility and factors of employment flexibility are strongly related as well. For example, job flexibility–underpaid is significantly and positively related to the Resources Mismatch Flexibility factor of the EFS-22 ($r = .64, p < .001$) as well as the EFS-25 ($r = .64, p < .001$). Moreover, the Person-Job Mismatch Flexibility factor of the EFS is significantly related to job flexibility–training ($r = .43, p < .001$) as well as job flexibility–underqualified ($r = .71, p < .001$).

Examination of Table 14 also indicates that employment flexibility and job flexibility relate to the other study variables in similar ways. For example, both job flexibility and

employment flexibility appears to be unrelated to the number of job interviews one received, the number of job offers one received, career adaptability, job-search self-efficacy, haphazard job-search, and focused job-search. Meanwhile, both job flexibility and employment flexibility are significantly and positively related to job-search intensity, and an exploratory job-search. In terms of these significant relationships, the EFS-25 relates to job-search intensity in the same way as job flexibility and job-search intensity ($r = .19, p < .05$). Additionally, the EFS-25 more strongly relates to an exploratory job-search ($r = .26, p < .001$) compared to job flexibility and an exploratory job-search ($r = .16, p < .05$).

It is also noteworthy to compare the internal consistency reliabilities of the EFS and the measure of job flexibility used in this study. For the EFS-22, Cronbach's alpha for the total scale, the Person-Job Mismatch Flexibility factor, the 5-item Resources Mismatch Flexibility factor, and the Relational Mismatch Flexibility factor were .93, .89, .89, and .90, respectively. For the EFS-25 internal consistency coefficients of the total scale and the 8-item Resources Mismatch Flexibility factor were .94 and .82, respectively. Meanwhile, Cronbach's alphas for total job flexibility, job flexibility–training, job flexibility–monotonous, job flexibility–underqualified, and job flexibility–underpaid were .84, .36, .56, .78, and .80, respectively. Indeed, both versions of the EFS appear to be much more internally consistent compared to the measure of job flexibility.

Taken together, patterns of correlations provide evidence of convergent validity for employment flexibility. Specifically, the results of this study show that employment flexibility is strongly correlated to job flexibility, and that both of these constructs relate to other variables in similar ways. Moreover, findings suggest that both versions of EFS are more internally consistent than the measure of job flexibility.

Ancillary analysis. Additional exploratory analysis was conducted to better understand the ways in which the three factors of the EFS operate. Specifically, a series of multiple regressions were conducted across all study variables while entering the three factors of the EFS (i.e., Person-Job Mismatch Flexibility, Resources Mismatch Flexibility, Relational Mismatch Flexibility) as the predictors in a single model. This process was repeated across both versions of the EFS (EFS-22 vs. EFS-25) as another way of comparing the utility of these two scales.

The first dependent variable examined was the number of job interviews one received in the last three months. Results from this set of analysis are presented in Table 15. Overall, this model was not significant, nor were any of the individual predictor variables included in this regression. These results suggest that none of the factors of the EFS help predict the number of job offers one received in the last three months regardless of the EFS version used to measure employment flexibility. While R^2 was the same for both versions of the EFS, F slightly improved in the EFS-25.

Table 15

Summary of Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Number of Job Interviews Across Two Different Versions of the EFS

Variable	22-item EFS ($N = 178$)			25-item EFS ($N = 178$)		
	B	$SE B$	β	B	$SE B$	β
EF-F1	-0.25	0.42	-0.07	-0.20	0.42	-0.06
EF-F2	0.43	0.30	0.14	0.46	0.33	0.14
EF-F3	0.14	0.36	0.04	0.12	0.36	0.03
R^2		.01			.01	
F		0.76			0.84	

Note: EF-F1 = Person-Job Mismatch Flexibility Factor; EF-F2 = Resources Mismatch Flexibility Factor; EF-F3 = Relational Mismatch Flexibility Factor.

Results from two regressions conducted with the number of job offers one received in the last three months is presented in Table 16. For both versions of the EFS, the regression

models were insignificant. Furthermore, none of the three factors seemed to contribute to our understanding of the variance of the number of job offers one received regardless of which EFS was used. R^2 remained the same across both versions of the EFS, while the F statistic slightly increased when using the EFS-25.

Table 16

Summary of Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Number of Job Offers Across Two Different Versions of the EFS

Variable	22-item EFS ($N = 178$)			25-item EFS ($N = 178$)		
	B	$SE B$	β	B	$SE B$	β
EF-F1	0.04	0.22	0.02	0.05	0.22	0.03
EF-F2	-0.01	0.15	0.00	-0.03	0.17	-0.02
EF-F3	-0.03	0.19	-0.01	0.01	0.19	0.01
R^2		.00			.00	
F		0.02			0.03	

Note: EF-F1 = Person-Job Mismatch Flexibility Factor; EF-F2 = Resources Mismatch Flexibility Factor; EF-F3 = Relational Mismatch Flexibility Factor.

The third variable examined using this regression analysis was one's overall career adaptability score. Results from these regressions are presented in Table 17. Across both versions of the EFS, the regression model was found to be significant. Using the EFS-22, factors two and three significantly contributed to our understanding of the variance in career adaptability. Using the EFS-25, only factor three significantly contributes to our ability to predict career adaptability, and it does so at a slightly stronger rate than it did using the EFS-22. Lastly, R^2 and F are slightly higher in the EFS-22 compared to the EFS-25.

Table 17

Summary of Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Career Adaptability Across Two Different Versions of the EFS

Variable	22-item EFS (N = 173)			25-item EFS (N = 168)		
	B	SE B	β	B	SE B	β
EF-F1	0.01	0.07	0.01	-0.04	0.07	-0.06
EF-F2	-0.11	0.05	-0.19*	-0.06	0.06	-0.09
EF-F3	0.17	0.06	0.26**	0.20	0.06	0.30**
R^2		.08			.07	
F		5.02**			3.97**	

Note: EF-F1 = Person-Job Mismatch Flexibility Factor; EF-F2 = Resources Mismatch Flexibility Factor; EF-F3 = Relational Mismatch Flexibility Factor.

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

Results from two regressions conducted with the career concern dimension of career adaptability are presented in Table 18. In both versions of the EFS, factor three significantly contributed to our understanding of the variance in career concern, however, the overall regression model was only significant when using the EFS-22 to measure employment flexibility. Both R^2 and F slightly decreased when using the EFS-25 in this regression analyses.

Table 18

Summary of Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Career Concern Across Two Different Versions of the EFS

Variable	22-item EFS (N = 180)			25-item EFS (N = 175)		
	B	SE B	β	B	SE B	β
EF-F1	-0.02	0.09	-0.03	-0.04	0.09	-0.06
EF-F2	-0.10	0.06	-0.15	-0.08	0.07	-0.10
EF-F3	0.16	0.08	0.21*	0.18	0.08	0.22*
R^2		.05			.04	
F		2.90*			2.37	

Note: EF-F1 = Person-Job Mismatch Flexibility Factor; EF-F2 = Resources Mismatch Flexibility Factor; EF-F3 = Relational Mismatch Flexibility Factor.

* $p < .05$

Table 19 presents the results from two regressions using the career control dimension of career adaptability as the dependent variable. Findings from these regressions indicate that both versions of the EFS produced significant models for predicting career control, although R^2 was slightly lower for the EFS-25. Regardless of EFS version, factor three was the only factor to significantly contribute to the overall model. Factor three predicted career control at a slightly stronger rate when the EFS-25 was used to measure employment flexibility.

Table 19

Summary of Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Career Control Across Two Different Versions of the EFS

Variable	22-item EFS (N = 178)			25-item EFS (N = 173)		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β
EF-F1	-0.04	0.09	-0.05	-0.08	0.09	-0.11
EF-F2	-0.10	0.06	-0.15	-0.05	0.07	-0.07
EF-F3	0.18	0.08	0.23*	0.20	0.08	0.25*
R^2		.05			.04	
<i>F</i>		3.32*			2.59*	

Note: EF-F1 = Person-Job Mismatch Flexibility Factor; EF-F2 = Resources Mismatch Flexibility Factor; EF-F3 = Relational Mismatch Flexibility Factor.

* $p < .05$

The career curiosity dimension of career adaptability was the next variable to be examined using this regression analyses. Table 20 provides a summary of findings. Both versions of the EFS produced significant models for predicting career curiosity, although R^2 and F were slightly greater using the EFS-22. The Relational Mismatch Flexibility factor (factor three) was the only significant variable in predicting career curiosity regardless of which EFS was used. Moreover, factor three's ability to predict career curiosity was slightly stronger when using the EFS-25.

Table 20

Summary of Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Career Curiosity Across Two Different Versions of the EFS

Variable	22-item EFS (N = 183)			25-item EFS (N = 178)		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β
EF-F1	0.04	0.08	0.05	0.00	0.09	0.00
EF-F2	-0.08	0.06	-0.12	-0.02	0.07	-0.02
EF-F3	0.17	0.07	0.22*	0.18	0.07	0.23*
R^2		.06			.05	
<i>F</i>		3.80*			3.09*	

Note: EF-F1 = Person-Job Mismatch Flexibility Factor; EF-F2 = Resources Mismatch Flexibility Factor; EF-F3 = Relational Mismatch Flexibility Factor.

* $p < .05$

The final dimension of career adaptability – career confidence – was the next dependent variable used in a regression analyses. Table 21 presents the findings from this set of analysis. Across both versions of the EFS, the overall regression model was found to be significant. While R^2 was the same in both versions of the EFS, F was slightly lower for the EFS-25. For the EFS-22, both the Resources Mismatch Flexibility factor and the Relational Mismatch Flexibility factor were shown to significantly contribute to our understanding of career confidence. When using the EFS-25, only the Relational Mismatch Flexibility factor was found to be significant as the Resources Mismatch Flexibility factor was no longer significant. Moreover, the Relational Mismatch Flexibility factor evidence a stronger ability to predict career confidence when using the EFS-25 compared to the EFS-22.

Table 21

Summary of Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Career Confidence Across Two Different Versions of the EFS

Variable	22-item EFS (N = 181)			25-item EFS (N = 176)		
	B	SE B	β	B	SE B	β
EF-F1	0.04	0.08	0.05	-0.03	0.09	-0.04
EF-F2	-0.12	0.06	-0.19*	-0.07	0.07	-0.11
EF-F3	0.20	0.07	0.26**	0.25	0.07	0.33+
R ²		.09			.09	
F		5.53**			5.49+	

Note: EF-F1 = Person-Job Mismatch Flexibility Factor; EF-F2 = Resources Mismatch Flexibility Factor; EF-F3 = Relational Mismatch Flexibility Factor.

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

+ $p \leq .001$

Job-search intensity was the next variable analyzed (see Table 22 for a summary of the results). Findings suggest that none of the three EFS factors contribute to our understanding of the variance in job-search intensity. Across both versions of the EFS, none of the factors were found to be significant. Additionally, regardless of EFS used, the overall regression model was found to be insignificant. Both R^2 and F were slightly greater using the EFS-25.

Table 22

Summary of Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Job-Search Intensity Across Two Different Versions of the EFS

Variable	22-item EFS (N = 177)			25-item EFS (N = 172)		
	B	SE B	β	B	SE B	β
EF-F1	0.15	0.10	0.17	0.15	0.10	0.18
EF-F2	0.02	0.07	0.02	0.03	0.08	0.04
EF-F3	-0.01	0.09	-0.02	-0.01	0.09	-0.01
R ²		.03			.04	
F		1.89			2.24	

Note: EF-F1 = Person-Job Mismatch Flexibility Factor; EF-F2 = Resources Mismatch Flexibility Factor; EF-F3 = Relational Mismatch Flexibility Factor.

The next dependent variable examined was job-search self-efficacy. Results from this set of regression analyses are present in Table 23. Findings seem to indicate that none of the three factors of the EFS contribute to our ability to predict job-search self-efficacy. This is true across both versions of the EFS. R^2 was the same in both versions of the EFS, however, F was slightly higher in the EFS-22 compared to the EFS-25.

Table 23

Summary of Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Job-Search Self-Efficacy Across Two Different Versions of the EFS

Variable	22-item EFS ($N = 174$)			25-item EFS ($N = 169$)		
	B	$SE B$	β	B	$SE B$	β
EF-F1	0.01	0.10	0.01	0.01	0.10	0.01
EF-F2	-0.12	0.07	-0.17	-0.10	0.07	-0.14
EF-F3	0.14	0.08	0.17	0.15	0.08	0.18
R^2		.04			.04	
F		2.47			2.02	

Note: EF-F1 = Person-Job Mismatch Flexibility Factor; EF-F2 = Resources Mismatch Flexibility Factor; EF-F3 = Relational Mismatch Flexibility Factor.

A haphazard type of job-search was the next dependent variable examined (see Table 24). Results from this set of analyses found that both versions of the EFS produced a significant model for predicting a haphazard job-search strategy. R^2 was the same across both versions of the EFS, while F was slightly greater when using the EFS-22 to measure employment flexibility. For the EFS-22, the Resources Mismatch Flexibility factor positively and significantly predicted a haphazard job-search strategy. For the EFS-25, the Relational Mismatch Flexibility factor negatively and significantly predicted a haphazard job-search strategy.

Table 24

Summary of Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Haphazard Job-Search Strategy Across Two Different Versions of the EFS

Variable	22-item EFS (N = 180)			25-item EFS (N = 175)		
	B	SE B	β	B	SE B	β
EF-F1	0.13	0.12	0.12	0.16	0.12	0.15
EF-F2	0.17	0.09	0.18*	0.14	0.06	0.14
EF-F3	-0.18	0.10	-0.16	-0.23	0.10	-0.21*
R^2		.06			.06	
F		3.79*			3.37*	

Note: EF-F1 = Person-Job Mismatch Flexibility Factor; EF-F2 = Resources Mismatch Flexibility Factor; EF-F3 = Relational Mismatch Flexibility Factor.

* $p < .05$

An exploratory job-search strategy was the next dependent variable examined in a regression analysis. Results of these analyses can be found in Table 25. Across both versions of the EFS, the regression model was found to be significant. This suggests that the three factors of the EFS, taken collectively, do a good job at predicting exploratory job-search strategy. Both R^2 and F were greater when measuring employment flexibility with the EFS-25. Despite these significant model results, none of the specific factors of the EFS were found to significantly predict exploratory job-search strategy. This was true for both versions of the EFS.

Table 25

Summary of Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Exploratory Job-Search Strategy Across Two Different Versions of the EFS

Variable	22-item EFS (N = 179)			25-item EFS (N = 175)		
	B	SE B	β	B	SE B	β
EF-F1	0.13	0.11	0.15	0.15	0.11	0.16
EF-F2	-0.03	0.07	-0.04	-0.02	0.08	-0.02
EF-F3	0.15	0.10	0.16	0.16	0.09	0.16
R^2		.07			.08	
F		4.25**			5.03**	

Note: EF-F1 = Person-Job Mismatch Flexibility Factor; EF-F2 = Resources Mismatch Flexibility Factor; EF-F3 = Relational Mismatch Flexibility Factor.

** $p < .01$

The final variable investigated in this set of regression analysis was the focused job-search strategy variable. Results for these analyses are summarized in Table 26. Overall, it appears that no factor of the EFS helps to predict levels of focused job-search strategy. Across both versions of the EFS, none of the results were found to be significant, which suggests that the EFS factors predict focused job-search strategy well. While R^2 was the same in both versions of the EFS, F was slightly greater when using the EFS-22.

Table 26

Summary of Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Focused Job-Search Strategy Across Two Different Versions of the EFS

Variable	22-item EFS ($N = 179$)			25-item EFS ($N = 176$)		
	B	$SE B$	β	B	$SE B$	β
EF-F1	-0.16	0.11	-0.18	-0.14	0.11	-0.15
EF-F2	0.03	0.07	0.03	0.00	0.08	0.00
EF-F3	0.09	0.09	0.10	0.06	0.09	0.07
R^2		.02			.02	
F		0.92			0.85	

Note: EF-F1 = Person-Job Mismatch Flexibility Factor; EF-F2 = Resources Mismatch Flexibility Factor; EF-F3 = Relational Mismatch Flexibility Factor.

Overall, the exploratory regression analyses just discussed do not provide clear evidence that one measure of employment flexibility is superior to the other. Indeed, the findings indicate that the measures seem to operate a little differently; however, why these measures operate differently is unclear. This is complicated by the fact that there are slight variations in samples and sample sizes across both versions of the EFS, in addition to the fact that these factors are all intercorrelated. Taken collectively, however, the results from these various regressions seem to document the following patterns. First, it is important to note that, at the item level, the differences between the two versions of the EFS are minor. However, when using the EFS-25, the Relational Mismatch Flexibility factor became a stronger predictor of a given dependent variable, while the Resources Mismatch Flexibility

factor lost any significance that was found when using the EFS-22. Secondly, the Relational Mismatch Flexibility factor seems to contribute to our understanding of the dependent variables investigated in this study better than the Person-Job Mismatch Flexibility factor and the Resources Mismatch Flexibility factor. With that said, the third recognizable pattern is that all of the relationships discovered were relatively weak with beta's ranging from -.21 to .33 and R^2 ranging from .00 to .09. Thus, the significant relationships found in this set of analysis indicate that only a small amount of variance in the dependent variables was accounted for by the three factors of the EFS.

Chapter V

Discussion

This chapter begins by synthesizing the results from Studies One, Two, and Three with respect to the measurement and construct validation of employment flexibility. Afterward, this chapter will discuss the findings related to the general attributes of employment flexibility within this sample of recent college graduates. Next, this chapter will provide a critical analysis of the results of Study Three in terms of the impact employment flexibility may have on the job-search process. Finally, the limitations of this study will be presented as well as implications for practice and future research.

Construct Validation and Measurement of Employment Flexibility

Given that employment flexibility is a new concept, as defined by theory of underemployment and circumscription and compromise, a major contribution of this study comes from the development of the Employment Flexibility Scale (EFS), and the corresponding evidence of construct validity and reliability. Two versions of the EFS were developed, one measure consisted of 25-items (EFS-25) and a second measure consisted of 22-items (EFS-22). Overall, both the EFS-25 and the EFS-22 appear to be valid and reliable measures of employment flexibility. While analysis was conducted to understand which version of the EFS was a better measure of employment flexibility, results were mixed. However, there is some empirical support for the use of the EFS-25 over the EFS-22 because the EFS-25 more strongly correlated to the measure of job flexibility. Moreover, the EFS-25 was slightly more internally consistent than the EFS-22.

Evidence of validity for the EFS comes from many sources in this study. First, the EFS was subjected to examination from three independent reviewers with some expertise in

vocational psychology and career development. This methodological procedure adds to the content validity of the EFS. Second, two separate confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) conducted across two different samples found that a three factor structure fit the data well, which suggests that the EFS has a stable factor structure. Third, the EFS evidenced convergent validity with the measure of job flexibility used in this study. Theoretically, job flexibility is the most similarly related construct to employment flexibility, thus one would expect measures of these constructs to relate strongly to each other, and to have similar patterns of relationships with other variables. Findings from this study show that, as expected, the EFS strongly correlated with the measure of job flexibility. Furthermore, both the EFS and the job flexibility measure related to the other primary variables in this study – number of job interviews received, number of job offers received, job-search intensity, job-search self-efficacy, job-search strategy, and career adaptability – in very similar, yet also distinct ways. Thus, these findings suggest that the EFS and the job flexibility scale are measuring similar, though not identical, constructs. Given that employment flexibility and job flexibility have different theoretical underpinnings, such findings make sense.

Compared to the measure of job flexibility, the EFS appears to be a more valid and reliable measure. Specifically, theoretically expected relationships with the primary variables in this study are stronger with the EFS. Moreover, the EFS is more internally consistent than the job flexibility measure, for the total scales and for the subscales. Additional problems related to the face validity of the measure of job flexibility (see Chapter Three under “Measures”) provides more support for the use of the EFS, rather than the measure of job flexibility, when assessing one’s flexibility to various types of job environments.

During the scale development process, three subscales emerged in the EFS based on the factor analyses conducted in this study. The first factor was comprised of items related to one's willingness to accept employment that does not match with one's experiences, skills, or educational background, which was referred to as Person-Job Mismatch Flexibility. The second factor was comprised of items related to one's willingness to accept employment that does not provide the amount of financial benefit one wants, which was referred to as Resources Mismatch Flexibility. The third factor was comprised of items related to one's willingness to accept employment where the coworkers would be notably different from the respondent in some way, which was referred to as Relational Mismatch Flexibility. Theoretically, the EFS was constructed based on five dimensions of underemployment (see Feldman, 1996) and three dimensions of circumscription and compromise (see Gottfredson, 2002; 2005); however, there was no prior assumption that the EFS would contain more than one factor as all eight of these dimensions are, theoretically and empirically, highly related. Thus, a three-factor model of the EFS was unexpected and requires examination. The psychology-of-working perspective (Blustein, 2006; Blustein et al., 2008) seems to provide a solid theoretical foundation for interpreting the three-factor solution found in the EFS.

Based upon an extensive analysis of economic, social, and psychological literatures, Blustein (2006) articulates a psychology-of-working perspective that explicates upon the primary psychological needs that work can satisfy for any person. According to Blustein (2006) the primary psychological needs that can be met through working include (1) survival and power, (2) human connectedness and relationships, and (3) self-determination or motivation. With regard to survival and power, the psychology-of-working perspective highlights the fact that work provides people with the means to acquire basic necessities such

as food, water, shelter, clothing, and safety, as well as economic, social, and psychological power. With regard to human connectedness and relationships, the psychology-of-working perspective notes that a fundamental link exists between one's work and their relational life. As such, work is able to fulfill important social connections such as providing one with a sense of community in addition to providing social and emotional support. With regard to self-determination, the psychology-of-working perspective acknowledges that work has the ability to provide individuals with a sense of motivation, or self-determination, even when career choice does not exist and when work is intrinsically uninteresting. Additionally, the psychology-of-working perspective acknowledges that some people – those with some degree of privilege such as recent college graduates – are able to choose a career that is an expression of one's identity, interests, skills, and experiences, thus, meeting self-determination needs by matching their self-concepts with their work. In sum, the psychology-of-working perspective helps to provide scholars with a synthesized understanding of the psychological reasons why all people work – survival and power, social connection, and/or self-determination.

Based on the psychology-of-working perspective, the Person-Job Mismatch Flexibility factor of the EFS can be understood as a subscale that assesses the degree to which an individual is willing to compromise on their psychological need for self-determination by working in a job that is not an expression of one's skills, experiences, and education. Further, with a psychology-of working perspective in mind, the Resources Mismatch Flexibility factor of the EFS can be understood as a subscale that assesses the degree to which an individual is willing to compromise on their psychological need for survival and power. Finally, from a psychology-of-working perspective, the Relational

Mismatch Flexibility factor of the EFS can be understood as a subscale that assesses the degree to which an individual is willing to compromise on their psychological need for social connectedness and relatedness with others. The latter of these propositions is particularly intriguing because prominent vocational psychologists have noted that the relational aspect of working is an important consideration in career development, yet it is also noted that the relational aspect of career choice and development is often overlooked within empirical literature (e.g., Blustein, 2001b; Phillips, Christopher-Sisk, & Gravino, 2001; Schultheiss, Kress, Manzi, & Glasscock, 2001). Noteworthy findings related to the Relational Mismatch Flexibility factor of the EFS will be highlighted in the sections that follow.

In summary, the EFS-25 demonstrated somewhat superior functioning to the EFS-22 and should be considered the best available measure of employment flexibility that exists. Evidence of reliability and validity provide empirical support for the use of this tool as a way of measuring employment flexibility. This measure seems to be devised of three factors (Person-Job Mismatch Flexibility, Resources Mismatch Flexibility, and Relational Mismatch Flexibility), which are conceptually related to Blustein's (2006) psychology-of-working perspective that underscores the psychological needs work can satisfy for people (survival and power, social connectedness, and self-determination).

Employment Flexibility in Recent College Graduates

Exploratory analysis conducted in this study provides insights into the ways in which employment flexibility, in and of itself, operates within the recent college graduate population. Across three major demographic variables (ethnic group membership, gender, and SES), no group differences were found in terms of levels (i.e., means and standard deviations) of employment flexibility. These findings may indicate that recent college

graduates, regardless of ethnic group membership, gender, or SES, tend to exhibit similar levels of employment flexibility. In this study, recent college graduates indicated moderate levels of employment flexibility – few individuals reported having very high or very low levels of employment flexibility. Thus, it may be that recent college graduates, in general, tend to be comparable in terms of their willingness to be employment flexible. Additionally, findings from this study suggest that levels of employment flexibility do not differ across recent college graduates who are currently searching for a job versus those who are not searching for a job, and who are unemployed versus employed. Moreover, findings from this study may indicate that the degree to which a recent college graduate agrees with grand career narrative beliefs (i.e., a job should be an expression of one’s self-concept and lead to predictable opportunities that result in better pay and status) does not play a role in determining one’s level of employment flexibility.

All of these findings seem to indicate that employment flexibility operates in a similar way for recent college graduates regardless of many demographic and life circumstance variables. Whether or not these findings are true for populations of people who have not recently graduated from college is yet to be seen. It is expected that employment flexibility will vary among samples of people who haven’t recently graduated from college.

Additionally, these findings are suggestive that a recent college graduate is likely to exhibit neutral levels of employment flexibility – demonstrating some flexibility, yet not completely employment flexible. Moreover, recent college graduates appear to be most willing to be employment flexible in terms of Relational Mismatch Flexibility, followed by Person-Job Flexibility, and lastly Resources Mismatch Flexibility. Thus, findings from this study suggest that recent college graduates are least willing to be flexible to a job that does

not meet their expected level of compensation in terms of salary and/or the number of hours available to work.

Employment Flexibility and the Job-Search Process

In general, the overarching hypothesis guiding this study – that employment flexibility will lead to greater job-search success – was not supported by the data. Notably, employment flexibility does not appear to play a role in determining whether or not a recent college graduate is employed or unemployed. Also, employment flexibility did not contribute to the number of job interviews or job offers that a recent college graduate received within the three months preceding their participation in this study.

With the above said, it may be premature to completely rule out employment flexibility as an important variable in the job-search process. Indeed, several noteworthy findings from this study suggest that employment flexibility may influence some key variables that have been shown to impact one's ability to successfully find and secure a job. Thus, employment flexibility may have an important, indirect role in successfully navigating the job-search process.

Job-search strategy and employment flexibility. The significant relationship found between employment flexibility and an exploratory job-search strategy seems to be a particularly important finding from this study. According to the results of this study, greater levels of employment flexibility are related to a greater adherence to an exploratory type of job-search. The finding is important given that the particular type of strategy an individual uses in their job-search has been found to play an important role in overall job-search success (Crossley & Highhouse, 2005; Koen et al., 2010; Wieczorkowska & Burnstein, 2004). In particular, previous research indicates that an exploratory job-search strategy (i.e., openness

to a wide range of job possibilities and actively gathering job information from a variety of sources) is especially helpful in leading to job-search success. For example, results from this study corroborated previous studies by finding evidence that an exploratory job-search strategy is significantly and positively related to the number of job offers one receives (Crossley & Highhouse, 2005; Koen et al., 2010). Moreover, this study found novel significant and positive relationships between an exploratory job-search strategy and the number of job interviews one receives as well as job-search self-efficacy. This empirical evidence is suggestive that an exploratory job-search strategy is related to important job-search variables and outcomes. Thus, employment flexibility may be indirectly related to important job-search outcomes because it is related to an exploratory job-search strategy, and an exploratory job-search is related to greater numbers of job interviews received, greater numbers of job offers received, and whether or not someone is employed versus unemployed.

Job-search intensity and employment flexibility. It is noteworthy that this study found that employment flexibility is significantly and positively related to job-search intensity. Empirical evidence has demonstrated that job-search intensity is predictive of the number of job interviews and job offers a recent college graduate receives (Saks, 2006). Specifically, Saks (2006) found that greater levels of job-search intensity led to greater number of job interviews and job offers in a sample of recent college graduates. These findings have been supported by current findings as well as by other scholars who found that job-search intensity is significantly and positively related to job interviews and job offers (Guerro & Rothstein, 2012). Thus, it is noteworthy that this study found that employment flexibility is significantly and positively related to job-search intensity. It may be that employment flexibility leads to greater levels of job-search intensity in an individual, which

then leads to greater job-search success (e.g., landing more job interviews and receiving multiple job offers).

Career adaptability and employment flexibility. Exploratory analysis suggests that the Relational Mismatch Flexibility factor of the EFS was significantly and positively related to, career adaptability, career concern, career control, career curiosity, and career confidence. Interestingly, this pattern of relationships is strongest between the career confidence dimension of career adaptability and the Relational Mismatch Flexibility factor of employment flexibility. Career adaptability, or the resources and ability an individual has to successfully navigate vocational-type of transitions (Savickas, 2005), has been demonstrated to be an influential factor in one's job-search process (see de Guzman & Choi, 2013; Guan et al., 2014; Koen et al., 2010; Zikic & Klehe, 2006). Like previous research, this study also found important relationships between career adaptability – and the four dimensions of career adaptability (concern, control, curiosity, and confidence) – to many important job-search variables. For example, career adaptability, concern, control, curiosity, and confidence were all significantly and positively related to an exploratory job-search strategy. Furthermore, this study replicates the work of others (Guan et al., 2014; Koen et al., 2010) in that career adaptability was significantly and positively related to job-search self-efficacy as well as job-search intensity. This study also provides novel findings to the literature by demonstrating that career adaptability is significantly and positively related to the number of job interviews one received within the last three months. Indeed, career adaptability seems to play a role in one's job-search process.

Taken together, these findings, while not causal, provide evidence that employment flexibility is related to an exploratory job-search strategy, job-search intensity, and career

adaptability. As all three of these variables have empirical evidence demonstrating that they are helpful in one's job-search in that they lead to positive job-search outcomes, it seems reasonable to conclude that employment flexibility may also play a role in helping one find successfully navigate the job-search process.

Limitations

The findings discussed above must be interpreted in light of the limitation inherent in this study. These limitations include: (1) data collection methods, (2) the correlational nature of this study, and (3) the exclusive use self-report measures to collect data. These three specific limitations are discussed below.

First, the exclusive use of Mechanical Turk to collect data in this study could be of concern. It may be that a specific subpopulation of recent college graduates tends to use Mechanical Turk, which may make generalizing findings difficult. Additionally, although the survey was specifically solicited to recent college graduates, theoretically, it is possible that individuals lied about this aspect of their identity and participated in the study even though they did not meet this specific requirement. In the future, as an example, research conducted on this topic could choose to collect data on recent college graduates by contacting individuals that are part of a university alumni network to be more certain that the individuals completing the surveys are, in fact, recent college graduates.

Another issue related to data collection is the differences in demographic characteristics between the three samples comprising this overall study. Statistically, a series of one-way ANOVAs and a Tukey post-hoc analysis indicated that Study One significantly differed to Study Two in terms of race, U.S. generational status, employment status and job-search, and to Study Three across gender, race, U.S. generational status, employment status,

and job-search status. One possible explanation for differences across samples may be due to the rapid rate at which study participants were recruited through Amazon's Mechanical Turk. At times, the recruitment process takes only minutes. Thus, it is plausible that the specific time and day that the recruitment announcement was posted inadvertently sampled a specific subgroup of people who were available to respond to the advertisement. The noted differences found across samples may be a concern for generalizability, as well as the construct validation of the EFS.

Additionally, given the correlational nature of this study, it is important to note that the findings of this study should not be interpreted as causal. Although it was suggested, and makes theoretical sense, that employment flexibility has an impact on the job-search process by influencing levels of career adaptability, job-search intensity, and the use of an exploratory job-search strategy, it is plausible that these relationships occur in the opposite direction. For example, it could be that greater job-search intensity leads to greater employment flexibility, and not the other way around. Future research using alternative research methods is needed in order to demonstrate directionality and causation of these relationships. Furthermore, it is possible that some underlying variable that was not measured is contributing to the relationships discovered in this study. Indeed, the variables investigated in this study are not an exhaustive representation of all the factors important in the job-search process.

Lastly, the exclusive use of self-report measures in this study may have contributed to the findings. As researchers have noted (e.g., Hoyt, Warbasse, & Chu, 2006), self-report methods of measuring psychological constructs may elicit individual response styles related to one's desire for making a positive impression, which may call into question the validity of

findings. Thus, an alternative explanation for the relationships found in this study could be that they are the result of some other underlying psychological phenomenon, such as social desirability. To counteract this potential limitation, future research may choose to collect data via methods other than self-report measures. Such methods may include direct observations, obtaining ratings from acquaintances to the respondent, or fact checking self-report measures with other forms of documentation.

Implications

Within the context of the limitations of this study, the results offer important contributions to the job-search literature while also offering important implications for clinical practice and future research. Specific implications related to practice and research are discussed in the sections below.

Implications for practice. The results of this study offer important considerations for practitioners who use career and employment counseling interventions in their clinical work. Given that employment flexibility exhibited significant relationships with several variables related to job-search success, it seems reasonable to conclude that employment flexibility should, at the very least, be discussed in counseling with those individuals who present with issues related to job-searching.

To begin such discussions, counselors would likely want to spend some time assessing a client's current level of employment flexibility, in total, but also with respect to each of the three specific factors of employment flexibility – Person-Job Mismatch Flexibility, Resources Mismatch Flexibility, and Relational Mismatch Flexibility. This assessment process could be integrated into a counselor's existing assessment toolkit that he or she uses to gather information about the readiness, skills, knowledge, and resources

(among other factors) that a client has to successfully engage in the job-search process. An assessment of employment flexibility may include asking questions that help an individual reflect on the types of work that he or she may, or may not be, flexible to.

From this assessment process, counselors may begin to formulate some hypotheses about the potential challenges their client(s) may experience in the job-search process. For example, results from this study indicate that a client who exhibits low levels of employment flexibility, overall, may also exhibit low levels of career adaptability and job-search intensity as well as lesser adherence to an exploratory job-search strategy. Moreover, clients who report low levels of Relational Mismatch Flexibility, specifically, may be the most likely to report low levels of career adaptability. Equipped with such hypotheses, counselors can then develop specific interventions for their clients. For example, a counselor may spend more time implementing interventions that target one's career adaptability if that client demonstrates little to no Relational Mismatch Flexibility. Such interventions may include encouraging clients to think and plan for immediate vocational tasks (career concern), engaging clients in career exploration activities (career curiosity), providing encouragement and affirming clients' strengths (career confidence), and modeling optimism (career control) (see Scholl & Cascone, 2010). Conversely, a counselor may choose to focus interventions on a completely different set of job-searching skills such as resume building or interview preparation, if the assessment process shows that a client is very employment flexible but lacking the tangible skills needed to successfully complete a job-search. Using the knowledge gained from an assessment of employment flexibility to guide counseling interventions could augment other intervention strategies shown to be helpful for clients engaged in the job-search process such as: teaching job-search skills, promoting better self-

presentation, increasing self-efficacy, facilitating goal setting, inciting proactivity, and encouraging the use of social networks (see Liu, Huang, & Wang, 2014).

Additionally, the assessment of an individual's employment flexibility may also be helpful for clients who have little direction or insight into the type of work they would like to do. Again, this assessment could be integrated into the assessment strategies a counselor already uses to help clarify the type of work a client would like to do. By assessing and exploring employment flexibility with a client, a counselor may be able to help their clients begin to explore and identify the specific aspects of work that they may be more or less flexible toward.

Finally, the findings from this study reminds counselors not to assume that all people believe that matching their self-concept to their work is the most important aspect of finding a job. In fact, results of this study suggest that recent college graduates tend to be more flexible to working in jobs that are incongruent with their self-concepts than they are to working in jobs that are incongruent with their expectations for salary and hours. Thus, counselors working with recent college graduates, and likely, counselors working with current college students, would be remiss if they were to assume that their client's top job-search priority was to find employment that matches their education, training, or other self-concept beliefs.

Implications for research. The findings and limitations of this study provide a starting point for recommendations for future research endeavors. First, results from this study support the use of the EFS as a way of measuring one's willingness to work in a variety of different employment situations. This study provides initial evidence of construct validity and reliability of the EFS, and has also indicated that measure is a more psychometrically

sound tool than the related measure of job flexibility. Despite this initial evidence, further research examining the psychometric properties of the EFS is needed. Such research would provide theoretical precision to the validation and measurement of employment flexibility, particularly if that research was aimed at investigating the three factors of the EFS, specifically. This type of research may include comparing means scores across a variety of groups, conducting test-retest comparisons to examine the trait versus state phenomenon of this construct, or examining the relationships between the three factors of the EFS to other relevant, career-related variables. Some particular variables of interest seem to include: career decision-making self-efficacy, perceived vocational options, vocational expectations and aspirations, perceived career barriers, and career exploration, to name a few. The results from such research may implicate that one or more of the three factors of the EFS are more important than the others with respect to one's vocational development. Results from this study provide the earliest signs that the Relational Mismatch Flexibility factor may be particularly important.

Secondly, research examining employment flexibility across a broad sample of participants would be beneficial to the advancement of employment flexibility. Given that this study only sampled individuals who identified as a recent college graduate, findings are limited in terms of their generalizability. By using this sampling method, it was impossible to control for the effects of having recently received a college degree, as there were no other comparison groups. Thus, future research that samples individuals outside of this narrowed population will advance our ability to understand and interpret how employment flexibility operates across larger majorities of people. One particular recommendation is to purposefully sample populations that will lead to greater variance in terms of levels of employment

flexibility than was captured in this study. For example, a researcher could collect data from professionals with decades of experience in their given trade as well as individuals who are long-term unemployed, as these two groups may create a wide range of variance in terms of levels of employment flexibility.

Third, given that this study found relationships between employment flexibility and several influential variables in the job-search process, future research designed to test for causality would be very helpful. Such research would be able to more accurately assess the proposition that employment flexibility does indeed influence career adaptability, job-search intensity, and the use of an exploratory job-search strategy, which in turn influences job-search success. Findings from this type of research would provide more definitive proof of the relative importance that employment flexibility has, or does not have, in the job-search process.

Lastly, future research is needed to understand whether or not employment flexibility is malleable. Relatedly, there is no empirical evidence within the literature that suggests that one's job-search strategy or job-search intensity is mutable. Given the positive job-search outcomes associated with an exploratory-type job-search and greater job-search intensity, research is needed to help guide psychological interventions. Research of this nature has the potential to have lasting clinical implications for practitioners tasked with helping individuals navigate the job-search process.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

CONTENT VALIDITY OF EFS ITEMS

Thank you for your participation! I am trying to measure employment flexibility, which describes a person’s willingness to accept eight different employment situations: over-education, job-education Mismatch Flexibility, skill underutilization, hours underemployed, pay underemployed, sex-type Mismatch Flexibility, status Mismatch Flexibility, and self-concept Mismatch Flexibility.

All eight of these situations have been defined below. Items developed to capture each of these situations are provided below. Please rate all of the items below in terms of the degree to which you think it accurately reflects the definition provided (using the scales below, choose one response per item – you can bold, highlight, underline, or change the font color of your selection).

Over-education – Definition: possessing more formal education than a job requires.

	Not at all			completely	
	1	2	3	4	5
1. Working in a job where you possess more formal education than the job requires.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Working in a job that does not require as much formal education as you have.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Working in a job where the other employees have less formal education than you do.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Working in a job where you have more formal education than most of your fellow employees.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Working in a job for which you feel overeducated.	1	2	3	4	5

Job-Education Mismatch – Definition: involuntarily employed outside area of formal education.

	Not at all			completely	
	1	2	3	4	5
1. Working in a job that is outside of your area of formal education.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Working in a job where your field of education is different from that of your fellow employees.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Working in a job where the field of work does not match your degree field.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Working in a job where the type of work is outside of your field of education.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Working in a job field that is different from the field of your formal education.	1	2	3	4	5

Skill Underutilization – Definition: possessing higher-level work skills and more extensive work experience than a job requires

	Not at all			completely	
	1	2	3	4	5
1. Working in a job that doesn't fully utilize your skills.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Working in a job that doesn't fully utilize your work experiences.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Working in a job that is below your level of expertise.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Working in a job that is below your level of training.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Working in a job that doesn't require as much skill as you possess.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Working in a job that doesn't require as much experience as you possess.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Working in a job where you have more skills than your fellow employees.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Working in a job where you have more work experience than your fellow employees.	1	2	3	4	5

Hours Underemployed – Definition: involuntarily working in a part-time, temporary, or intermittent employment situation

	Not at all			completely	
	1	2	3	4	5
1. Working in a temporary job.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Working in a job with inconsistent hours.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Working in a job with unstable hours.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Working in a job where hours worked doesn't qualify you for benefits.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Working in a job where you can't predict yours from day to day (or week to week).	1	2	3	4	5
6. Working in a job that cannot provide the amount of hours you prefer to work.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Working fewer hours than you want to work.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Working in a seasonal job.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Working in a part time job.	1	2	3	4	5

Pay Underemployed – Definition: earning 20% less than in a previous job, or (if no previous employment history exists) earning 20% less than people working in a similar job with similar education

	Not at all				completely
	1	2	3	4	5
1. Working in a job where you earn 20% less than other employees with similar education.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Working in a job where you earn 20% less than other employees with similar experience.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Working in a job where you earn 20% less than other employees with similar skills.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Working in a job that pays 20% less than what you earned in a previous job.	1	2	3	4	5

Sex-type Mismatch – Definition: being employed in a job that violates one’s understanding of their sex/gender roles in society

	Not at all				completely
	1	2	3	4	5
1. Working in a job that does not match your sex-type.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Working in a job where you don’t feel comfortable expressing your gender identity.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Working in a job where the majority of people have a different gender than you.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Working in a job where you look different than the other employees.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Working in a job where you dress differently than most of your fellow employees.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Working in a job where the majority of people have a different sex than you.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Working in a job where your gender is the minority.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Working in a job that does not match your gender identity.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Working in a job where your sex is the minority.	1	2	3	4	5

Status Mismatch – Definition: being employed in a job that violates one’s understanding of their social status position in society

	Not at all				completely
	1	2	3	4	5
1. Working in a job of lower social prestige than you have.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Working in a job that has low occupational status.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Working in a job that does not have a lot of status or prestige.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Working in a job where you are the low person on the totem pole.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Working in a job where you are more intelligent than most of your fellow employees.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Working in a job that requires less intelligence than you have.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Working in a job that your family would not respect.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Working in a job that your community would not respect.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Working in a job that your friends would not respect.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Working in a job where you are less intelligent than most of your fellow employees.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Working in a job where most of your fellow employees are from a higher social class than you.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Working in a job where most of your fellow employees are from a lower social class than you.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Working in a job that has more status and prestige than the jobs your family have.	1	2	3	4	5
14. Working in a job that has more status and prestige than the jobs your friends have.	1	2	3	4	5

Self-Concept Mismatch – Definition: being employed in a job that violates one’s understanding of their internal, unique sense of self

	Not at all			completely	
	1	2	3	4	5
1. Working in a job where you can’t express the real you.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Working in a job that doesn’t match your interests.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Working in a job that doesn’t match your values.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Working in a job that doesn’t match your personality.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Working in a job that doesn’t match your abilities.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Working in a job that doesn’t match your aptitudes.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Working in a job that doesn’t match your attitudes.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX B

INITIAL EMPLOYMENT FLEXIBILITY SCALE (EFS-I)

Using the scale provided below, please indicate your willingness to accept the following employment situations.

	Not At All Willing			Completely Willing	
	1	2	3	4	5
1. Working in a job where you possess more formal education than the job requires.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Working in a job that is outside of your area of formal education.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Working in a job that doesn't fully utilize your skills.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Working in a temporary job.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Working in a job where you earn 20% less than other employees with similar education.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Working in a job that does not match your sex.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Working in a job of lower social prestige than you have.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Working in a job where you can't express the real you.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Working in a job that does not require as much formal education as you have.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Working in a job where your field of education is different from that of your fellow employees.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Working in a job that doesn't fully utilize your work experiences.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Working in a job with inconsistent hours.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Working in a job where you earn 20% less than other employees with similar experience.	1	2	3	4	5
14. Working in a job where the majority of people have a different gender than you.	1	2	3	4	5
15. Working in a job where you are more intelligent than most of your fellow employees.	1	2	3	4	5
16. Working in a job that doesn't match your interests.	1	2	3	4	5
17. Working in a job where the other employees have less formal education than you do.	1	2	3	4	5
18. Working in a job where the field of work does not match your degree field.	1	2	3	4	5
19. Working in a job that is below your level of expertise.	1	2	3	4	5
20. Working in a job that cannot provide the amount of hours you prefer to work.	1	2	3	4	5
21. Working in a job where you earn 20% less than other employees with similar skills.	1	2	3	4	5
22. Working in a job where the majority of people are of a different sex than you.	1	2	3	4	5
23. Working in a job that your community would not respect.	1	2	3	4	5

	Not At All Willing			Completely Willing	
	1	2	3	4	5
24. Working in a job that doesn't match your values.	1	2	3	4	5
25. Working in a job where you have more formal education than most of your fellow employees.	1	2	3	4	5
26. Working in a job where the type of work is outside of your field of education.	1	2	3	4	5
27. Working in a job where you have more skills than your fellow employees.	1	2	3	4	5
28. Working fewer hours than you want to work.	1	2	3	4	5
29. Working in a job that pays 20% less than what you earned in a previous job.	1	2	3	4	5
30. Working in a job that does not match your gender identity.	1	2	3	4	5
31. Working in a job where most of your fellow employees are from a higher social class than you.	1	2	3	4	5
32. Working in a job that doesn't match your personality.	1	2	3	4	5
33. Working in a job for which you feel overeducated.	1	2	3	4	5
34. Working in a job field that is different from the field of your formal education.	1	2	3	4	5
35. Working in a job where you have more work experience than your fellow employees.	1	2	3	4	5
36. Working in a part time job.	1	2	3	4	5
37. Working in a job where your sex is the minority.	1	2	3	4	5
38. Working in a job where most of your fellow employees are from a lower social class than you.	1	2	3	4	5
39. Working in a job that doesn't match your attitudes.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX C

BACKGROUND QUESTIONNAIRE

Age: _____

Gender: 1 – Male 2 – Female 3 – Other: Specify _____

Race: 1 – African American 2 – American Indian 3 – Asian
4 – Chicano/Latino 5 – White 6 – Other: Specify _____

Marital Status: 1 – Single 2 – Married 3 – Widowed 4 – Divorced

Generational Status*: 1 – First 2 – Second 3 – Third

*First generation refers to people born outside of the U.S., second generation refers to individuals born in the U.S. who have one or two of their parents born outside of the U.S.; third generation refers to individuals born in the U.S. who have both parents born in the U.S.

Are you currently employed? 1 – Yes 2 – No

Occupation of father*: _____

Occupation of mother*: _____

*Be Specific as possible. If retired or deceased, please indicate former occupation

Father's education (Select one)

- A. Less than 12 years (K-12)
- B. High school diploma or GED
- C. 1-2 years of college, no degree
- D. Associates degree
- E. 3-4 years of college, no degree
- F. Bachelors degree
- G. Masters degree
- H. Doctoral degree

Mother's education (Select one)

- A. Less than 12 years (K-12)
- B. High school diploma or GED
- C. 1-2 years of college, no degree
- D. Associates degree
- E. 3-4 years of college, no degree
- F. Bachelors degree
- G. Masters degree
- H. Doctoral degree

College Major: _____

Are you the first person in your family to graduate from college? 1 – Yes 2 – No

Please provide the month and year when you graduated from college: Month _____ Year _____

Since graduating college, have you ever been employed? 1 – Yes 2 – No

If yes, please provide the date you were hired? (If you have had multiple jobs, list the hire date of your FIRST job after college). _____

Please indicate how much you agree with the statements below (1= strongly disagree; 5= strongly agree)

“A person’s job should reflect their identity.”

1 2 3 4 5

“A person’s job should provide them an opportunity to move up the social ladder.”

1 2 3 4 5

“A person’s job should lead to predictable opportunities.”

1 2 3 4 5

“A person’s job should lead to a better job.”

1 2 3 4 5

APPENDIX D

25-ITEM EMPLOYMENT FLEXIBILITY SCALE (EFS-25)

Using the scale provided below, please indicate your willingness to accept the following employment situations.

	Not At All Willing			Completely Willing	
	1	2	3	4	5
1. Working in a job that does not require as much formal education as you have.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Working in a job where the field of work does not match your degree field.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Working in a job that doesn't fully utilize your work experiences.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Working in a job where you earn 20% less than other employees with similar education.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Working in a job that does not match your sex.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Working in a job of lower social prestige than you have.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Working in a job that doesn't match your interests.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Working in a job where you have more formal education than most of your fellow employees.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Working in a job field that is different from the field of your formal education.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Working in a job that is below your level of expertise.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Working fewer hours than you want to work.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Working in a job where you earn 20% less than other employees with similar experience.	1	2	3	4	5
14. Working in a job where the majority of people have a different gender than you.	1	2	3	4	5
15. Working in a job where you are more intelligent than most of your fellow employees.	1	2	3	4	5
16. Working in a job that doesn't match your personality.	1	2	3	4	5
17. Working in a job where you have more skills than your fellow employees.	1	2	3	4	5
18. Working in a part-time job when you prefer a full-time job.	1	2	3	4	5
19. Working in a job where you earn 20% less than other employees with similar skills.	1	2	3	4	5
20. Working in a job where your sex is the minority.	1	2	3	4	5
21. Working in a job where most of your fellow employees are from a higher social class than you.	1	2	3	4	5
22. Working in a job that doesn't match your attitudes.	1	2	3	4	5
23. Working in a job where you have more work experience than your fellow employees.	1	2	3	4	5
24. Working in a job with inconsistent hours when you prefer consistent hours.	1	2	3	4	5
25. Working in a job that pays 20% less than what you earned in a previous job.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX E

MEASURE OF JOB FLEXIBILITY

Please indicate how much you agree with the following statements (1 = totally disagree; 5 = totally agree).

1. I am willing to accept a job which requires me to follow training for 6 months	1	2	3	4	5
2. I am willing to accept a dirty and unhealthy work	1	2	3	4	5
3. I am willing to accept a job of a lower level than my previous job	1	2	3	4	5
4. I am willing to accept a job which requires less training/education than I obtained	1	2	3	4	5
5. I am willing to accept a very monotonous job	1	2	3	4	5
6. I am willing to accept an uninteresting job	1	2	3	4	5
7. I am willing to go back to school to get a job	1	2	3	4	5
8. I am willing to accept a job which offers a lower wage than my previous job	1	2	3	4	5
9. I am willing to accept a job which pays less than what may be reasonably expected based on my educational level	1	2	3	4	5
10. I am willing to work on the assembly line	1	2	3	4	5
11. I am willing to accept a job for which is need to change my profession	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX F

CARRER ADPAT-ABILITIES SCALE

Different people use different strength to build their careers. No one is good at everything- each of us emphasizes some strengths more than others. Please rate how strongly you have developed each of the following abilities using the scale below (1 = not strong; 5 = strongest)

1. Thinking about what my future will be like	1	2	3	4	5
2. Realizing that today's choices shape my future	1	2	3	4	5
3. Preparing for the future	1	2	3	4	5
4. Becoming aware of the educational and vocational choices that I must make	1	2	3	4	5
5. Planning how to achieve my goals	1	2	3	4	5
6. Concerned about my career	1	2	3	4	5
7. Keeping upbeat	1	2	3	4	5
8. Making decisions by myself	1	2	3	4	5
9. Taking responsibility for my actions	1	2	3	4	5
10. Sticking up for my beliefs	1	2	3	4	5
11. Counting on myself	1	2	3	4	5
12. Doing what's right for me	1	2	3	4	5
13. Exploring my surroundings	1	2	3	4	5
14. Looking for opportunities to grow as a person	1	2	3	4	5
15. Investigating options before making a choice	1	2	3	4	5
16. Observing different ways of doing things	1	2	3	4	5
17. Probing deeply into questions I have	1	2	3	4	5
18. Becoming curious about new opportunities	1	2	3	4	5
19. Performing tasks efficiently	1	2	3	4	5

20. Taking care to do things well	1	2	3	4	5
21. Learning new skills	1	2	3	4	5
22. Working up to my ability	1	2	3	4	5
23. Overcoming obstacles	1	2	3	4	5
24. Solving problems	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX G

MEASURE OF JOB-SEARCH INTENSITY

These questions are about your job-search. If you are currently employed, think back to the job-search process that helped you get your current job. Answer these questions about the job-search process that led to your current job. If you are not currently employed, answer these questions about your current job-search.

Please indicate the amount of time you spent on each of these activities during the last four months (1 = no time at all; 5 = very much time).

1. Preparing/revising resume	1	2	3	4	5
2. Reading classified/help wanted advertisements	1	2	3	4	5
3. Looking for jobs on the Internet	1	2	3	4	5
4. Talking with friends/relatives about job leads	1	2	3	4	5
5. Speaking with previous employers or business acquaintances about job leads	1	2	3	4	5
6. Contacting employment agencies	1	2	3	4	5
7. Making inquiries to prospective employers	1	2	3	4	5
8. Sending out application letters	1	2	3	4	5
9. Preparing and going on job interviews	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX H

MEASURE OF JOB-SEARCH STRATEGY

These questions are about your job-search. If you are currently employed, think back to the job-search process that helped you get your current job. Answer these questions about the job-search process that led to your current job. If you are not currently employed, answer these questions about your current job-search.

Please indicate how much you agree with the following statements about your own job-search process (1 = strongly disagree; 5 = strongly agree)

- | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. My job search was more or less haphazard | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. My approach to gathering job-related information could be described as random | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. I used a ‘hit or miss’ approach when gathering information about my job | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. I did not really have a plan when searching for my job | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. I followed up on every lead to make sure I didn’t miss any golden opportunities | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. I tried to get my resume out to as many organizations as possible | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. I followed up on most leads, even long shots | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. I gathered as much information about all the companies that I could | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. I examined all available sources of job information (e.g., employment centers, friends, internet sites, etc.) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. I gathered information about all possible job opportunities, rather than setting out for something specific | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11. I gathered information only for job openings that looked like what I wanted | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12. I gathered information only for jobs that I was really interested in | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

13. My information gathering efforts were focused on specific jobs	1	2	3	4	5
14. I gathered information only for jobs that I knew I would qualify for	1	2	3	4	5
15. I targeted my job search toward a small number of employers	1	2	3	4	5
16. I had a clear idea of what qualities I wanted in a job	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX I

JOB-SEARCH SELF-EFFICACY – BEHAVIORS SCALE

Please rate your level of confidence for each of behaviors/outcomes provided below (1 = not at all confident; 5 = totally confident).

1. Use social networks to obtain job leads.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Prepare resumes that will get you job interviews.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Impress interviewers during employment interviews.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Make “cold calls” that will get you a job interview.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Conduct information interviews to find out about careers and jobs that you are interested in pursuing.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Prepare a sales pitch that will attract the interest of employers.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Plan and organize a weekly job search schedule.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Find out where job openings exist.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Use a variety of sources to find job opportunities.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Search for and find good job opportunities.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX J

EXPLORATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS ITEMS

- ITEM5. Working in a job where you earn 20% less than other employees with similar education.
- ITEM6. Working in a job that does not match your sex.
- ITEM7. Working in a job of lower social prestige than you have.
- ITEM9. Working in a job that does not require as much formal education as you have.
- ITEM10. Working in a job where your field of education is different from that of your fellow employees.
- ITEM11. Working in a job that doesn't fully utilize your work experiences.
- ITEM12. Working in a job with inconsistent hours.
- ITEM13. Working in a job where you earn 20% less than other employees with similar experience.
- ITEM14. Working in a job where the majority of people have a different gender than you.
- ITEM15. Working in a job where you are more intelligent than most of your fellow employees.
- ITEM16. Working in a job that doesn't match your interests.
- ITEM17. Working in a job where the other employees have less formal education than you do.
- ITEM18. Working in a job where the field of work does not match your degree field.
- ITEM19. Working in a job that is below your level of expertise.
- ITEM20. Working in a job that cannot provide the amount of hours you prefer to work.
- ITEM21. Working in a job where you earn 20% less than other employees with similar skills.
- ITEM22. Working in a job where the majority of people are of a different sex than you.
- ITEM23. Working in a job that your community would not respect.
- ITEM24. Working in a job that doesn't match your values.
- ITEM25. Working in a job where you have more formal education than most of your fellow employees.
- ITEM26. Working in a job where the type of work is outside of your field of education.
- ITEM27. Working in a job where you have more skills than your fellow employees.
- ITEM28. Working fewer hours than you want to work.
- ITEM29. Working in a job that pays 20% less than what you earned in a previous job.
- ITEM31. Working in a job where most of your fellow employees are from a higher social class than you.
- ITEM32. Working in a job that doesn't match your personality.
- ITEM33. Working in a job for which you feel overeducated.
- ITEM34. Working in a job field that is different from the field of your formal education.
- ITEM35. Working in a job where you have more work experience than your fellow employees.
- ITEM36. Working in a part time job.
- ITEM37. Working in a job where your sex is the minority.
- ITEM38. Working in a job where most of your fellow employees are from a lower social class than you.
- ITEM39. Working in a job that doesn't match your attitudes.

APPENDIX K

22 ITEMS OF FINAL EFS FACTOR STRUCTURE

- ITEM5. Working in a job where you earn 20% less than other employees with similar education.
- ITEM6. Working in a job that does not match your sex.
- ITEM7. Working in a job of lower social prestige than you have.
- ITEM9. Working in a job that does not require as much formal education as you have.
- ITEM11. Working in a job that doesn't fully utilize your work experiences.
- ITEM13. Working in a job where you earn 20% less than other employees with similar experience.
- ITEM14. Working in a job where the majority of people have a different gender than you.
- ITEM15. Working in a job where you are more intelligent than most of your fellow employees.
- ITEM16. Working in a job that doesn't match your interests.
- ITEM18. Working in a job where the field of work does not match your degree field.
- ITEM19. Working in a job that is below your level of expertise.
- ITEM20. Working in a job that cannot provide the amount of hours you prefer to work.
- ITEM21. Working in a job where you earn 20% less than other employees with similar skills.
- ITEM25. Working in a job where you have more formal education than most of your fellow employees.
- ITEM27. Working in a job where you have more skills than your fellow employees.
- ITEM29. Working in a job that pays 20% less than what you earned in a previous job.
- ITEM31. Working in a job where most of your fellow employees are from a higher social class than you.
- ITEM32. Working in a job that doesn't match your personality.
- ITEM34. Working in a job field that is different from the field of your formal education.
- ITEM35. Working in a job where you have more work experience than your fellow employees.
- ITEM37. Working in a job where your sex is the minority.
- ITEM39. Working in a job that doesn't match your attitudes.