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Emotional processes in Job Search: Does Outplacement change them?

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Dissertation submitted as partial requirement for the conferral of
Master in Social and Organizational Psychology

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October, 2015

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Acknowledgements

“If I have seen further it is by standing on the shoulders of Giants”

Isaac Newton

This project is the result of all the learning experiences and remarkable people I met along the way and with whom I have shared this journey. Not forgetting those, I would like to leave a sincere word:

To Professor Nelson Ramalho, for the guidance, support, and for making this work possible. Thank you for showing me you were the best choice.

To my parents, for the unconditional love. Thank you for allowing me to pursue my goals.

To Ana, for going through this five-year journey with me. I would never get here without your friendship and support.

To Manuel and Joana, for the advices and for letting me be part of the team.

To all my colleagues, for the opportunity to learn more with each one of them.

To the outplacement companies I have worked with, for allowing me to study and better understand the noble work they do.

To all of those who, at any point, helped making this possible, I would like to express my most sincere gratitude.

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Resumo

Apesar da literatura existente sobre este tópico, o papel que o Outplacement realiza no âmbito do processo de procura de emprego permanece desconhecido, nomeadamente no que concerne ao efeito que este tem nos processos psicológicos que precedem comportamentos de procura de emprego. Este estudo pretende analisar a relação entre certas variáveis emocionais dentro do processo de encontrar um novo trabalho, oferecendo, para tal, uma comparação entre indivíduos desempregados que tiveram apoio formal de Outplacement *versus* sem apoio estruturado. Resultados sugerem um efeito de moderação parcial do outplacement, uma vez que este interage com algumas relações no nosso modelo geral de investigação. O capital psicológico revelou ser uma variável inerte; ansiedade e depressão demonstraram estar relacionadas com as variáveis de regulação emocional e, no modelo de outplacement, a reavaliação cognitiva relacionou-se positivamente com ansiedade que, por seu turno, actuou positivamente nos comportamentos de procura de emprego. Autoeficácia foi o preditor mais importante da procura de emprego, bem como mediador da relação entre capital psicológico e, apenas no grupo não-outplacement, da depressão com os comportamentos de procura de emprego. Os contributos destes resultados para profissionais de recursos humanos e consultores de outplacement são discutidos e suportados com sugestões para investigação futura.

Key-Words: Psicologia Organizacional; Procura de emprego; Outplacement; Desemprego; Perspetiva de autorregulação; Regulação emocional; Capital psicológico; Ansiedade; Depressão; Autoeficácia; Comportamentos de procura de emprego.

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Abstract

In spite of the existing literature on this topic, the role that outplacement counseling performs within job search process is still unknown, namely regarding the effect it has on the psychological processes that precede job search behaviours. This study aims to analyze the relationship between some emotion-linked variables within the process of finding a new job by offering a comparison between unemployed individuals that had formal outplacement support *versus* no structured support. Results suggest a partial moderating effect of outplacement, once it interacts with some relationships in the overall research model. Psychological capital was found to be an inert variable; anxiety and depression were found to be related with emotional regulation variables and, in outplacement model, cognitive reappraisal was found to positively related with anxiety that, in turn, positively act on job search behaviours. Self-efficacy was the foremost predictor of job search as well as a mediator of psychological capital and, only in non-outplacement group, of depression's relationship with job search behaviours. The contributions of these results for human resources professionals and outplacement counselors are discussed and supported with suggestions for future research.

Key-Words: Organizational Psychology; Job Search; Outplacement; Unemployment; Self-Regulatory Perspective; Emotional Regulation; Psychological Capital; Anxiety; Depression; Self-efficacy; Job Search Behaviours.

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List of Abbreviations

APC	Average Path Coefficients
ARS	Average R-Square
AVE	Average Variances Extracted
AVIF	Average Variance Inflation Factor
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CR	Cognitive Reappraisal
ERQ	Emotion Regulation Questionnaire
ES	Expressive Suppression
HR	Human Resources
JSB	Job Search Behaviours
LGO	Learning-Goal Orientation
OPC	Outplacement Counseling
PLS	Partial Least Squares
SE	Job Search Self-Efficacy
SEM	Structural Equation Modeling

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Introduction

We live in a world that is increasingly becoming more VUCA: volatile, uncertain, complex, and ambiguous. Work, as a result of this new social dynamic, is now seen and experienced in a different perspective once there is no more the idea of “work for life” and work-life transitions are more common these days, driven either by economic or organizational reasons. As we spend more time of our lives engaged in work than in any other activity (Muchinsky, 2000), it is crucial to study how this is affecting employees.

Unemployment in Portugal

Unemployment has been documented as a structural problem in European economic scenario for some years now. Statistics show that it increased to as high as 10.9% in the first quarter of 2013 (European Commission, 2015a). Accordingly, and since Portugal presents itself as one of the weakest economies in this spectrum, it was strongly hit by this phenomenon making the issue of unemployment something talked on a daily-basis and in which most of social and political agenda are based.

In fact, the country's unemployment rate is particularly high, and has been exponentially increasing since 2008 from less than 8% to 16% in only 5 years (INE, 2015a). This trend decreased significantly, following the European trend, from the first and second trimesters of 2014 bringing out a turning point, with the rate at 15.1% and 13.9%, respectively (INE, 2015b).

Despite this reduction in global data, there are some variables that we should specify in order to get to conclusive responses.

If we focus on gender for instance, we can analyze that along the years women were always more affected by this topic than men. Nevertheless, these data has reversed in the last four years with men, in 2012, reaching higher rates than females by 7% (PORDATA, 2015a). Focusing on age, it is clear that youth unemployment (from ages 15 to 24) is a serious problem in the European Union, with a peak of 23.5% in 2013, consistently different than the 9.5% rate among workers aged 25-74 in the same period (European Commission, 2015a). In Portugal these values are even more worrying having reached more than 40% in the first trimester of 2013 (INE, 2015c).

It must also be mentioned the type of unemployment when studying this topic. Thus, it is crucial to differentiate young people who are seeking their first job from adults who are looking for a new one. Therefore, we can say that from 2011 to 2014, data show an exponential increase among the adults that are looking for a new job - reaching almost 640 thousand unplaced workers last year - comparing to the 88 thousand looking for their first job (PORDATA, 2015b). The discrepancy between these values shows the growing importance that support in career transition has acquired.

Regarding marital status, in late April 2015, of the 539.323 unemployed registered in the employment centers, 47.2% were married or had life partners (IEFP, 2015a). This becomes something to hold when, within this percentage, in 9% of these cases both spouses are registered as unemployed in the unemployment center. These data should be considered with special attention for the precarious situation that these household clusters hold up.

Last but not the least, we must analyze the position that the unemployed occupied before the jobless situation. Thereby, we can conclude that the least qualified professions – e.g. vendors, blue collar workers, craftsmen, etc. - have higher rates of unemployment when compared to the most qualified ones – e.g. administrative, intellectual or scientific professions, etc. (PORDATA, 2015c).

Government standard support for unemployed

In a country where *to work* is considered the first economic right and duty, the State is expected to create legislation that stimulates full-employment and provide opportunities and training for its people and that, in turn, every citizen should be lawfully and morally obliged to work as well (Portuguese Constitution, III Title, Chapter 1, art. 58).

Despite how *work* is considered, the constitution foresees moments in which the worker is, involuntarily, unemployed. In those situations, and since employees are left without means of subsistence, the State shall provide social protection to its citizens (Portuguese Constitution, III Title, Chapter 1, art. 58; Portuguese Constitution, III Title, Chapter 2, art. 63).

IEFP (*Instituto do Emprego e Formação Profissional*) was created for this purpose and, as such, it stands as the public service of national employment. Its mission is to promote the creation and quality of employment and combat unemployment through the application of active employment policies, including vocational training. The IEFP has a decentralized and flexible organizational structure, which includes: several Central Services; 5 Regional Offices; 52 Employment centers; and 1 Training and Vocational Rehabilitation Centre.

Regarding IEFP goals, we can mention: a) to promote the organization of the labour market in view of a direct adjustment between supply and demand for employment; b) encourage the creation and maintenance of jobs through appropriate measures concerning the economic context as well as characteristics of employers; and c) the vocational integration of different audiences through specific measures, particularly for those that are at greatest risk of exclusion from the labour market (IEFP, 2015b).

We can distinguish three major programs that are operated by the IEFP (IEFP, 2015c). First of all, *Online services for career management support* which provide online guidance services to support career management, useful either for those seeking employment as the ones interested in creating a business project and that intend to rethink their professional project. Secondly, *Professional inclusion offices*, a network of Professional Integration Offices (GIP – *Gabinete de Inserção Profissional*) promoted by public and private accredited non-profit organizations to provide support to youths and adults unemployed in their journey of integration or reintegration into the labour market. GIPs, in close coordination with employment services, can develop activities such as actions to support active job search and developing the entrepreneurial attitude or dissemination of job vacancies and posteriorly support the relocation. Lastly, *Support for entrepreneurship and self-employment creation*, for individuals that present a business idea and want to develop a small business activity, enables a program of support for entrepreneurship and self-employment creation, which comprises: business creation incentives and national microcredit program. When it comes to young people, they can also apply for “young investors” program that aims to promote business start-ups by unemployed youth.

EMOTIONAL PROCESSES IN JOB SEARCH

Although the existence of several programs aiming to reduce the number, as well as the impact, of those seeking new job opportunities, there is still a lack in the identification of the variables that better help one's replacement.

In the following chapters we will study job search phenomena and, more precisely, the impact of outplacement support on this journey. First of all, we review the prevailing literature on job loss, with a focus on the role of emotions and the link that they have with the posterior job search behaviours, focusing on the two main theoretical perspectives. After that, we will present outplacement as a job search strategy and describe which are the major domains and practices that this service includes. After that, and based on the literature, we will describe the different variables that act as predictors of job search behaviour and, while doing so, we will present our hypotheses.

Secondly, we report the methodological details of our study which comprise participants and procedure as well as the psychometric analysis of the instrument side by side with the measures applied. After, we present the data analysis strategy to explain the statistical analysis pursued.

Thirdly, we report the main findings of our investigation. Initially, we go through the coefficients and correlations of the latent variables and then to test our structural models, one that integrates outplacement respondents and the other with non-outplacement respondents. Subsequently, we test the hypotheses formulated in the first chapter.

The final chapter initiates with a discussion regarding the implications and limitations of our methodological decisions. The importance of our findings for unemployed workers as well as for outplacement companies are also debated, concluding with suggestions for future research.

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Chapter I. Theoretical Framework

In this chapter we will review the literature in which the present study relies on. Our purpose is to provide an integrated framework for the main findings of this study and to offer a contribution for the existing research.

Firstly, we will approach the emotion during jobless period and link that journey with job search phenomena. Secondly, we will present the case of outplacement as a job search strategy. For that, we will describe its origins, the different models in which it is based and the perspective of both sides of this program: outplacement agencies and the jobless individuals.

Finally, we will analyze the specific theoretical framework on which the present study was built, dividing between key emotional and non-emotional variables on job search. Along with the description of each variable, we will anticipate our hypothesis. At the end, we will illustrate our research model based on both literature and empirical results.

1.1. Emotion in Job Loss

Job Loss in Working Life

Losing a job can be one of the most stressful events an individual over the life course can experience (Paul & Moser, 2009) and this topic is becoming increasingly present since job security has declined flagrantly in the transition from the “old economy” to the “new economy” (Sweet and Moen, 2011).

Work connects people with society, provides a sense of life purpose and fosters individuals to share common goals. Work is also important for identity and status, once it places the individual in a social hierarchy (Paul & Moser, 2009). Therefore, when people lose their jobs, not only do they lose their value in others' eyes, but they also lose a way of organizing their time, the relationship with their co-workers, a place in their social groups and, more than that, their assumptions regarding values such as fairness or trust (Ciulla, 2000).

Job loss is defined as a transitional process precipitated by the “trigger event” of an involuntary cessation (*event*), that the employee does not control nor desire, and that occurs prior to a period of unemployment (*state*) (Latack, Kinicki, & Prussia, 1995).

Although it is a painful event for most people - especially for those who have invested a large part of their time, effort and character in their careers – there are individual differences that could be mentioned. Firstly, there is evidence that losing a job is less unsettling and painful for older than for younger employees (Mandemakers & Monden, 2013). This could happen because, although older men may have lower re-employment chances, they may be less attached to the labour market so that job loss process hurts less. Moreover, the timing at which a job loss occurs (early, mid, or late in one's career) can affect not only the prospects of finding replacement work but also the interpretation of the event within a personally constructed career storyline.

Beyond age effect, one may find a difference regarding social status as, for instance, research by Andersen (2009) demonstrates that middle-class people are psychologically worst hit by job loss. Finally, concerning education, differences occur deeper right after job loss and diminish over time, being much profound for the lower-educated than for the higher-educated. The higher re-employment chances of the higher-educated play an important role in this difference (Mandemakers & Monden, 2013).

Therefore, aligned with Mandemakers and Monden (2013) study, it should be noted that we focus on *job loss* rather than *unemployment* as it eliminates an important source of selection bias. Thus, unemployment - as a consequence of job loss - may become less predictable depending on an increase of educational level. We therefore include in our study all individuals who lost a job regardless of successive employment or unemployment length.

Be Prepared for Job Loss

Researchers have noted that many individuals perceive positive aspects regarding job loss. One of the most mentioned is career growth once, although job loss may be associated with stress and disruption, stressful happenings can lead to progression as they spur people to ponder new alternatives, to develop new competencies, and to restructure their lives towards a more positive direction (Latack & Dozier, 1986).

Perceptions of control or a sense of command can be a valuable resource when shaping response to job insecurity (Pearlin, Schieman, Fazio, & Meersman, 2005). Furthermore, jobs themselves may enhance individuals to socialize or provide them resources in order to facilitate the navigation of career changes. For example, even when high pressure for results exists, the intrinsic qualities of job matter once even demanding roles are associated with increased vitality and energy (Barnett & Gareis, 2006).

Not only the job but also the organization itself can influence how employees respond to being dismissed. Research shows that organizations that provide a secure work are also the least likely to potentiate bullying behaviours (Hodson, Roscigno, & Lopez, 2006), suggesting that workers in those organizations are better prepared for job loss in terms of a supportive work environment. Similarly, organizations with less complex hierarchies and less rigidly formalized practices tend to outspread more autonomy to their workers (Hodson, Roscigno, & Lopez, 2006). This autonomy, in turn, might transfer to a greater capacity to prepare for, plan, and cope with job loss.

In addition, as many studies indicate, when employers provide information and resources to employees during downsizing, it has a positive effect on their perceptions of procedural justice and also predicts subsequent favorable social-psychological outcomes (Grunberg, Anderson-Connolly, & Greenberg, 2000) as well as increase preparation for job loss. If preparation has a positive influence on adjustment, this should be evident in minimized impacts of being laid off on financial, health, and emotional well-being - which already have been documented to be negatively affected by job loss (Burgard, Brand, & House, 2007).

In sum, preparation for job loss does not appear to altogether eliminate negative health or emotional impacts following job loss, but the literature supports a conclusion that it likely contributes in

terms of resilience (Sweet & Moen, 2011). This indicates that emotional readiness is an important component of planning for job loss, and yet the way many individuals lose jobs underestimate this component of preparation.

Dealing with Job Loss and Job Search Phenomena

When focusing job loss phenomena on a psychological approach, there are two main theoretical perspectives that have been considered: *coping theory* and the *framework of self-regulation*.

Coping has been referred as the process by which individuals transform their responses, either cognitive or behavioural, to address internal and/or external demands that are interpreted as exceeding one's resources (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). When applied to a job loss situation, according to Latack, Kinicki and Prussia's (1995) model, it refers to the "cognitive and behavioural efforts to manage the taxing demands posed by job loss" (p. 1995), aimed at reestablishing equilibrium in the different aspects of one's lives. To do so, those authors highlight two different strategies: *control* (address the problem) or *escape* (not dealing with the situation).

Therefore, coping, to be successful, needs flexibility and to be adapted to the requirements of each situation, which often change as the event unfolds. Thus, it is not just a static well-defined group of strategies that are drawn, but a changing pattern that is responsive to the current situation (Muchinsky, 2000). In addition, individuals' coping results will be determined by their coping efficacy, in other words, the beliefs about one's ability to use coping strategies successfully (Latack, Kinicki, & Prussia, 1995). For instance, emotion-focused coping "deals with the feelings and reactions to the stressful situation", using emotions as indicators of stress appraisals as well as a mean to regulate responses to the origin of distress (Latack, Kinicki, & Prussia, 1995).

While coping perspective theorizes job search as a way to cope or manage the stressful event of job loss, self-regulatory standpoint permits researchers to study job search beyond job loss circumstances. Self-regulation, as a part of Social Cognitive Theory, is the mechanism by which consideration occurs between behaviour, cognitive and environment factors and is "translated into incentives and guides for purposive action" (Bandura, 1991, p. 249). The prominence of self-efficacy is emphasized, meaning individuals' own beliefs about the control they have regarding their own behaviours and life events in general (Bandura, 1991).

Kanfer, Wanberg and Kantrowitz (2001) dedicated their study on the application of the self-regulation frame to job search. Based on a dynamic conception of job search and considering it a highly autonomous job, authors comprehend that individual differences will be largely self-organized and self-managed (Kanfer, Wanberg, & Kantrowitz, 2001). These authors defend that job search refers to a pattern of thinking, affect, and behaviour that can be evaluated along intensity-effort, content-direction and temporal-persistence dimensions. The process initiates with individual's commitment to an employment goal, which generates certain job search behaviour. Being a self-regulatory process, individual differences will appear and, as the job search advances, changes in both direction and intensity may occur. The last phase of this course could be either goal

accomplishment or abandonment, depending on the employment status achieved (Kanfer, Wanberg, & Kantrowitz, 2001).

Van Hooft and Noordzij (2009) also studied job search process, through the integration of self-regulation with goal-orientation perspective. Their study aimed to examine whether improving unemployed job seekers' cognitive self-regulation can increase reemployment probability and, for that, authors developed a learning-goal orientation (LGO) training. Their results support the hypothesis that *learning goal orientation*, focused on the pursuit of challenging activities, results in higher job search intentions and behaviour than *performance orientation*, focused on the display of accomplishments, or the definition of no particular goals. These findings have important implications once knowing that self-regulation can be developed through LGO training provides employment-counseling agencies with a powerful tool to help people finding a new occupation (Van Hooft & Noordzij, 2009).

1.2. Job Search Strategies: The Case of Outplacement

History of Outplacement

Helping professionals on how to deal with job loss and process the transition from one job to another is the core service on which a billion-dollar industry has been built. In less than forty years a new business has emerged whose name is outplacement (Redstrom-Plourd, 1998).

The origins of this industry can be traced back to the post World War II period, when returning soldiers whose jobs no longer existed demanded help from job search assistance counselors in order to potentiate their unique pre-war and war time experiences into vendible skills (Redstrom-Plourd, 1998). The delivery of outplacement counseling (OPC) services went through a four step evolution: (a) during the 1960s and 1970s it was delivered as a highly individualized consulting process; (b) during the 1980s the individualized services were supplemented with group learning experiences; (c) in the early 1990s there was an integration of both individualized services with group learning experiences and (d) in the mid to late 1990s the core business focused on group learning experiences that, optionally, could be accompanied with individual consulting. Thus, this change in the last decades was largely driven by corporate downsizing and restructurings which result in abundant layoffs of people at all organizational levels (Butterfield & Borgen, 2005). As result of this tendency, by 1980 there were over 50 known outplacement firms reporting profits of 80 million dollars that, in ten years, have grown to over \$1 billion (Redstrom-Plourd, 1998).

The gathering of experience accompanying outplacement processes, the exponential growth in specialized corporations and the increasingly humanistic and socially responsible nature that these services were attaining led several companies to provide this kind of services to help dismissed workers coping with job loss and gaining tools to find a new one (Davy, Anderson and DiMarco, 1995). As noted by Kirk (1994), the expenses for such services are clearly associated with a perception of social responsibility and less lawsuits, meaning that OPC was increasingly becoming a legitimized human resource activity. Nonetheless, Butterfield and Borgen (2005) identify other grounds for selecting these services such as smoothing the transition process, increasing the morale of remaining employees as well as maintaining both productivity and the organization's public image.

Conceptual Definition

Since the history of outplacement has been built, a different set of definitions appeared in the literature, being the most representative the ones summarized in Table 1.1.

Table 1.1

Most representative outplacement definitions

Author	Definition
Miller (1987)	Help in finding a new job.
Jordan (1991)	A structured group of activities which assist the employee in obtaining a new position.
ILO (International Labour Organization) (1996)	A package of services and consultation provided individually and collectively by an outplacement agency upon request of and payment by an employer, so that workers may own their own accord and as quickly as possible find employment with a new employer or develop a professional activity on a freelance basis.
Doherty (1998)	Involves structured programmes of help for individuals, usually provided by an external consultancy and paid for by the organization in order to facilitate individuals through the redundancy transition and help them reorientate to the job market.
Butterfield & Borgen (2005)	A specialized form of career advice usually offered by companies to employees who are dismissed.
Noordzij et al. (2013)	Process of vocational guidance and career counseling that helps job seekers to construct their career and find a job and employment counseling effectiveness as the degree to which counselors' behaviours result in their clients getting reemployed in the right kind of jobs.

Source: up to 1998 adapted by Ramalho (2001)

Despite the contribution of the different contexts and ranges of each of these definitions, we consider Ramalho's (2001) to be the most inclusive and suitable, once it highlights both the subjects of the process as well as the objectives it aims to achieve. Indeed, the author defines outplacement as the consultancy process that aims to help, upon request of the source organization, the employee who must find a new situation outside the organization, providing, for an agreed period of time, means to enhance their personality and experience (Ramalho, 2001).

Therefore, outplacement programs are designed to assist unemployed workers developing problem-focused coping strategies by offering their services to all individuals who are eligible, regardless of sex, age, or race (Gowan & Nassar-McMillan, 2001). Despite some alternative methods, OPC typically include task-related services such as career planning, resume writing, interview training, identification of convertible skills, values examination, marketing training, networking, and image counseling (Butterfield & Borgen, 2005).

However, to the exception of the most senior level, outplacement services are sold nowadays as standardized programs and the delivery of those services is normally managed in the most time and cost efficient manner outplacement firms can conceive, although the different elements can be mixed and matched intending to meet the unique requirements of users. This meets the desires of the outplacement firm to manage their services and protect their profitability and, on the other hand, it

provides the corporation the options they asked for to select services according to their budget and employee requirements (Redstrom-Plourd, 1998). These shorter programs would more easily fail to neglect some nuclear components that outplacement can present (such as psychological counseling or career planning). However, these types of programs are becoming a common reality, not only for reasons of economic efficiency but also depending on some characteristics of the candidate in hands. For instance, finding an appropriate professional position is easier for candidates with lower degrees of qualification (Ramalho, 2001), resulting in a less individualized and comprehensive OPC program for those profiles.

Outplacement Models

There is still a lack of theoretical information on outplacement models. One of the most complete on the subject is the work of Aquilanti and Leroux (1999) which integrates previous studies such as *Career Development Model* of Latack and Dozier (1986), the *Transition Consulting Model* of Mirabile (1985) and *Holistic Outplacement Model* of Kirk (1994). For Aquilanti and Leroux (1999) all of these models have limitations. The ones from Mirabile (1985) and Kirk (1994) are both accused of having a weak theoretical framework as well as non-operational steps. The model of Latack and Dozier (1986) has been considered as more complete but it does not offer a vision on how to solve problems, how to overcome the transition factors neither on how to achieve maximum career growth (Aquilanti & Leroux, 1999).

In practice, registered models have positive points (in the theoretical framework) and failures (in the operation). In response to the identified limitations, Aquilanti and Leroux's (1999) model aims to sustain a broader theoretical and operational framework.

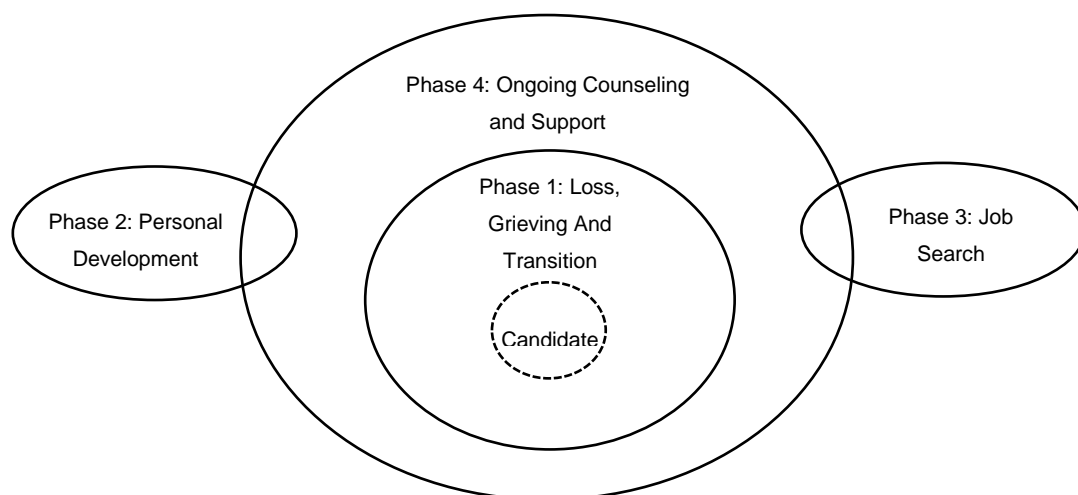


Fig. 1.1 Aquilanti and Leroux's Integrated Model

The model explained by Aquilanti and Leroux (1999) involves four *phases*, being this word used instead of "stage" to better portray the flexible movement of candidates through the process. The

first phase, *loss, grief and transition* is the initial transition. Although candidates will go through a grieving process throughout all four phases, the first one has a bigger focus on candidate's emotional state (anger, anxiety, depression, etc). The relationship between candidate-counselor here needs to be trustful and caring, so the counselor can assess his client readiness to begin the next phase. The second one is *personal development*, where candidate's work values are assessed - using a variety of techniques (questionnaires, inventories, etc) – in order to develop a career plan. It is important to assess candidate's fears regarding career transitions as well as their financial planning competencies. The next phase is for candidates to implement their *job search* competencies, using key elements such as informational interviews, resume preparation, networking and acquiring interview skills. In this stage candidates should gather a lot of information as it will enhance their career adaptability. The last phase of this process is perhaps the most critical one. At *ongoing counseling and support* counselor's unwavering support is crucial for a smooth transition to candidate's new life structure, always applying encouraging messages and constant feedback (Aquilanti & Leroux, 1999).

Outplacement Companies' Perspective

There are some best practices that, when requesting the services of an outplacement company, the beneficiary requires. Indeed, sensitive processes that guarantee a well-managed and well-implemented adjustment process for the company are crucial. Therefore, HRM Partners (2015) mention as vital processes: a) planning staff adjustment to the new situation(s) and consulting with management and Human Resources (HR); b) training for supervisors on how to lead the processes of adjustment/adaptation and how to lead with employees who remain - as it will minimize legal risks and help achieving a recovery to profitable operations as fast as possible; c) training covering outplacement - for individuals or groups; d) redeployment training with follow-up and feedback - to ensure good re-employment within an appropriate period of time - and e) training "facing change" for different employee groups (HRM Partners, 2015).

LHH-DBM (2015), one of the major outplacement companies worldwide, summarizes both benefits, for the company as well for the employee, demonstrated at Table 1.2.

Table 1.2
Benefits of outplacement both for the company and employees

OPC benefits for the company	OPC benefits for the employee
1. Supports the planning and conduct of the dismissal process.	1. Minimizes the trauma of redundancy and restores the confidence and self-esteem.
2. Strengthens Social Responsibility, providing support in the continuity of career.	2. Directs its power to the most effective search of new opportunity.
3. Preserves the company's image and protects the internal climate and the morale of the group.	3. Maximizes employment opportunities.
4. Decreases litigation risks.	4. Develops strategies for a systematic approach, organized and consistent market.
5. Supports and facilitates the management of Human Resources.	5. Consolidates the necessary bases for the management of his professional career

Source: LHH-DBM (2015)

Right Management (2014), one of the leading outplacement firms, on “The role of outplacement in today’s business practices” surveyed 1,721 business leaders and HR professionals during the year of 2013, in 10 countries, via an internet questionnaire. The findings show that 85% of the companies that offer outplacement indicated it was “very/extremely important” to maintain positive relations between current and departing employees and that those companies are more likely to experience increases in Key Performance Indicators such as productivity, profitability, stock price, morale and satisfaction. From all the business processes that can induce the outplacement need, the most frequent are restructuring (68%), merger or acquisition (53%) or leadership change (43%). Restricting unwanted turnover, reducing recruiting costs, lowering absenteeism and boosting moral after restructure were also indicated to be valuable metrics to measure how changes are being accepted by the remaining workforce. Simultaneously, it is a common recommendation that the strategy should be immediate and preventive, acting as soon as possible in order to reduce the gap between the entry in the unemployment situation and the beginning of the support given.

Individual Differences

Despite this growth of interest regarding outplacement, there is a lack of research on the workers’ benefits for participating in these services (Vinokur, van Ryn, Gramlich, & Price, 1991). Consequently, it proves to be of great importance to study the type of OPC most appropriate for each person as results indicate that, as an example, gender and age differences do exist as well as interactions among reemployment status (Gowan & Nassar-McMillan, 2001).

Indeed, outplacement activities can be examined in different ways to best meet different requirements. Gowan and Nassar-McMillan (2001) grouped them into three categories: *self-awareness activities* (individual career assessments, group career assessment feedback sessions, and one-on-one counseling), *action-oriented activities* (job search workshops and resume writing workshops), and *training activities* (enrolling in a job training program). Savickas (2011), on the other hand, differentiated between three basic services concerning the role that career counselors could have, depending on clients’ needs: *vocational guidance*, in which counselors help clients find a matching job (i.e., client as actor); *career education*, in which counselors help clients develop new competencies for a job (i.e., client as agent); and *career counseling*, in which counselors help clients construct their career (i.e., client as author) (Savickas, 2011).

According to Davy, Anderson and DiMarco (1995), individuals receiving this type of formal outplacement training have higher job search self-efficacy and are more optimistic regarding recovery from job loss than those going to the informal social support group. Indeed, informal support consist on small groups that discuss their progress in the job search, namely about the problems they have faced and sharing job leads with others, and that are encouraged to continue by volunteer counselors from community agencies that lead the sessions (Davy, Anderson & DiMarco, 1995).

Outplacement’s Evaluation

Regardless of the variations found in outplacement programs offered in the market, there is consensus that it brings multiple benefits. Besides those already mentioned above, Davy, Anderson and DiMarco (1995) also refer the positive thinking on candidate's mind, the improvement on the psychological response to job loss, enhance of self-confidence and self-efficacy in job search as well as improved expectations regarding recovery from job loss.

Accordingly, employment services can be evaluated at different levels: (a) examining the content of the program itself; (b) empirically scanning the effectiveness of the job search activity; (c) study the cost *versus* benefits/utility of outplacement efforts; (d) examine the client's satisfaction regarding the effectiveness of the job search process (Wooten, 1996). Regarding the last one, literature shows that program content and outplacement process issues are better predictors of client satisfaction compared with contextual variables such as library materials or administrative support (Wooten, 1996).

In light of the rapid growth and anticipated ongoing need for OPC services it is surprising that little empirical evidence is available about OPC's effectiveness (Wooten, 1996). Butterfield and Borgen (2005) advanced the knowledge by asking outplacement clients in which extent OPC services were helpful and meet their needs. The results suggest that many individual recipients of OPC services received structured, task-focused programs that did not meet their emotional and transition needs. In addition, they empathize that, rather than focusing only on getting tasks completed, they desired help dealing with anger and the sense of loss and, moreover, they mentioned the need for individualized attention as well as to have access to services that recognized one's employment-related needs (Butterfield & Borgen, 2005).

In order to overcome this gap in the literature, in the present study we aim to study OPC by comparing results regarding different emotion-linked variables between jobless individuals that took part (or not) in an outplacement program.

1.3. The Present Study

Job search has become so widespread and frequent that it is now considered to be an integral part of people's work life (Kanfer, Wanberg, & Kantrowitz, 2001). Accordingly, there has been a dramatic increase in research on the prediction of job search behaviour and employment outcomes (Saks, 2005). Thus, in their meta-analysis, Kanfer, Wanberg, and Kantrowitz (2001) found that personality traits, self-evaluations, motives, social context, and biographical variables were significantly related to job search behaviour that was, posteriorly, related to employment outcomes.

For instance, when exploring how biographical variables can interfere on job search, innumerous studies have worked towards a profounder knowledge on different segments. Literature states that members of a minority group normally participate more in job search activities than the ones from a majority group (van Hooft, Born, Taris, & van der Flier, 2004); that age is also associated with job search - older individuals report less job search behaviours when compared to younger ones – as well as gender since men are more direct and engage more in job search activities than women

(Kanfer, Wanberg, & Kantrowitz, 2001; van Hooft, Born, Taris, van der Flier, & Blonk, 2004). Last but not the least, education is also an important segment once individuals with higher levels of education are more direct in job search activities than the ones with lower levels of schooling (Kanfer, Wanberg, & Kantrowitz, 2001).

In this section we will present the key predictors and one possible mediator that, by analyzing the literature on this matter, we think best suit the link between the personal correlates of job search behaviour and employment outcomes which will build our research model. For that, and as we aim to demonstrate that emotion-linked behaviours are the key factors for the main difference between outplacement vs non-outplacement jobless experience, we will present the key emotional variables first.

Key Emotional Variables on Job Search

Emotional Regulation

Managing emotions has been a subject people have been wondering from many years now. However, only in the last four decades has the field of emotion regulation begun to develop as a relatively independent research domain (Gross, 1998), firstly in development psychology and now it is flourishing also in both child and adult literatures. This emerging field studies “the process by which individuals influence which emotions they have, when they have them, and how they experience and express these emotions” (Gross, 1998, p. 275). Therefore, there is a crescent appreciation that individuals employ substantial control over their emotions which can be tracked along the timeline of the unfolding emotional response (Gross, 2001).

There are two main strategies that research have been focusing to better understand the individual differences within emotional regulation and the consequences of implementing it: *cognitive reappraisal* (CR; a history of emotional regulation strategy) and *expressive suppression* (ES; emotional regulation strategy focused on response) (Gross & John, 2003). After plentiful laboratory investigations, the *Emotion Regulation Questionnaire* (ERQ; Gross & John, 2003) was the instrument created in order to assess those strategies, and it has been acquiring considerable relevance after having been compared across groups and countries (Matsumoto, Yoo, & Nakagawa, 2008).

Gross and John's (2003) framing supports the idea that an emotion begins with an evaluation of emotion clues. Those, when attended to and valued in certain ways, trigger a coordinated set of response tendencies that involve experiential, behavioural, and physiological systems. *Cognitive reappraisal* is a form of cognitive response that includes interpreting an emotion-eliciting condition in such a way that alters its emotional impact. On the other hand, *expressive suppression* is a form of response contraction which inhibits continuing emotion-expressive behaviour (Gross, 1998).

As reappraisal is an antecedent-focused strategy, it intervenes before the emotion response tendencies have been entirely created, meaning that it can efficiently modify the subsequent emotion trajectory. More concretely, when used to down-regulate negative emotion, reappraisal will moderate the experiential and behavioural components of negative emotion. By contrast, suppression will thus be successful in decreasing the behavioural expression of negative emotion, but might have the

involuntary side effect of also holding down on the expression of positive emotion. Besides, suppression generates a sense of incongruence in the individual between inner experience and outer expression. This sense of not being true to ourselves, of being inauthentic rather than truthful with others (Sheldon, Ryan, Rawsthorne, & Ilardi, 1997), may well lead to negative feelings regarding oneself and also push away the individual from others.

In sum, Gross and John (2003) studies conclude that: 1) reappraisers experience and express superior positive emotion and reduced negative emotion, while suppressors experience greater negative emotion; 2) reappraisal is related with enhanced interpersonal functioning, whereas using suppression is associated with poorer interpersonal functioning and 3) using reappraisal is positively related with well-being, whereas using suppression is negatively related.

Anxiety and Depression

There is clear evidence that events considered as uncontrollable or undesirable are more likely to be associated with psychological and physical distress than expected and desirable life events (Latack & Dozier, 1986). Therefore, several studies have found that unemployment lowers subjective well-being being this concept based on the fulfillment of five fundamental needs: (a) time structure, (b) social contacts, (c) engagement in activities meant for collective purposes, (d) status, and (e) regular activity (Clark, 2003).

Despite the extensive literature on this matter, unemployment scholars have sought to categorize the different stages which a person suffering job loss goes through, such as shock, denial, anger, acceptance, resignation, etc. (see Bennett, Martin, Bies, & Brockner, 1995). However, suggestion from those who have looked in detail at different experiences of grief and mourning over loss of work indicates that essentially every individual laid off must discover his/her own path towards the future (Ainsworth & Hardy, 2009).

From the ones trying to overcome this fault in literature are the different programs regarding job search strategies such as outplacement once most of them address anxiety and depression in their studies. Indeed, according to Kirk's model (1994), dismay and disbelief are often employees' initial reactions to being let go. Although workers differ in their individual reactions to being laid off, most experience a sense of loss and therefore go through a period of grieving. They may grieve as in the death of a relative, close friend, or family pet (Kirk, 1994). As another example, Aquilanti and Leroux' model (1999) integrates as the first phase of being jobless the trauma caused by shock and denial, anger and bargaining, experimentation and, last but not the least, search for meaning and internalization of the situation.

Therefore, research indicates that job loss places people at increased risk of poor mental health in terms of increased depression, anxiety, slight psychiatric morbidity and, most commonly, decreased self-esteem (Vinokur & Caplan, 1987). On the other hand, it is important to lay emphasis on the fact that being re-employed improves well-being (Vinokur & Caplan, 1987) and, more than that, nullifies the negative effects of unemployment on mental health (Paul & Moser, 2009), especially when having emotional support from family members and from others who have successfully overtaken similar career transitions.

Mandemakers and Monders (2013) add a different factor regarding this topic by finding that job loss increases psychological distress but, moreover, the impact is largest in the first year of the jobless situation and decreases each year so that after about four years there is no longer an impactful effect on psychological distress. Research from these authors also showed that having a job following job loss is better than having no job at all in terms of mental health. This stresses our proposal that re-employment programs and social plans have potential to reduce the burden of layoffs, something especially valid for the lower-educated (Mandemakers & Monders, 2013).

When focusing on the relation between this grief and mourning phase with future perspectives for unemployed professionals, conflicting theoretical perspectives exist regarding the direction of such relations between psychological well-being and job-search success. Although traditional perspective argues that unsuccessful search result in decreased physical and mental health (Murphy & Athanasou, 1999), the Reverse Causation Hypothesis (RCH, Kasl, 1982) posits that poor psychological well-being will negatively influence employment outcomes. However, in a recent study, Crossley and Stanton (2005) integrate Kasl's (1982) RCH perspective into Kanfer, Wanberg, and Kantrowitz's (2001) self-regulatory model of the job search process. Using the theoretical model from these last authors, they found that negative affect is indirectly related to job search success, being its predictor through self-efficacy as mediator of this relation.

Lastly, it should be noted that, aligned with Mandemakers and Monders (2013) research, we have opted to focus on *state* forms of negative affect in the present study (depression and anxiety) rather than trait-like ones (e.g., pessimism, self-esteem), taking into account that, although anxiety and depression tend to be more malleable over time (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), these *distress* concepts are more task or situation specific (Kanfer, Wanberg, & Kantrowitz, 2001), being more related to the specific job search behaviours we measured. Furthermore, whereas research on *affective* states suggest more immediate effects on behaviour (see Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), studies on *distress* states failed by typically assess search outcomes between six- and twenty-four-months later, leading to some concern about the validity of claims that distress does not influence employment status over and above negative affect (Kanfer, Wanberg, & Kantrowitz, 2001). In the present study job search success will be assessed at the same time of anxiety and depression symptoms.

Having this in mind, we can globally hypothesize that anxiety and depression are associated with emotional regulation strategies in such a way that:

H1a: Anxiety and depression are negatively predicted by cognitive reappraisal.

H1b: Anxiety and Depression are positively predicted by expressive suppression.

Psychological Capital

Evidences regarding the value of a positive mind-set and positive beliefs in one's relationships, wellbeing, and work are considerably growing (Avey, Reichard, Luthans, & Mhatre, 2011). This demand for positive psychology pressures to refocus on the value of positive psychological resources in the field of organizational behaviour and human resource management (see Luthans, 2002). One of the major constructs in this area of study is known as "psychological

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capital". Psychological capital, or simply PsyCap, has been conceptually created by Luthans and colleagues (Luthans, 2002; Luthans & Youssef, 2004; Luthans, Avolio, Avey, & Norman, 2007) as comprising the four positive psychological resources of hope, optimism, efficacy, and resilience, which, when combined, have been empirically determined to be a second-order core construct (Luthans, Avolio, Avey, & Norman, 2007). PsyCap drives beyond human ('what you know') and social ('who you know') capital, and is more concerned with 'who you are' and, more importantly, 'who you are becoming' (i.e., developing one's actual self to turn into the possible self) (Luthans, Avey, Avolio, Norman & Combs, 2006). Furthermore, each construct meet the criteria of being based in theory and research with valid measures, as well as being state-like and open to development (Luthans & Youssef, 2004). The comprehensive definition of Psyscap is:

“. . . an individual's positive psychological state of development characterized by: (1) having confidence (efficacy) to take on and put in the necessary effort to succeed at challenging tasks; (2) making a positive attribution (optimism) about succeeding now and in the future; (3) persevering toward goals and, when necessary, redirecting paths to goals (hope) in order to succeed; and (4) when beset by problems and adversity, sustaining and bouncing back and even beyond (resilience) to attain success.” (Luthans, Youssef, & Avolio, 2007, p. 3)

Positive psychology has already published considerable research on the components of PsyCap, demonstrating that each one is as desirable in an organization as in life in general. Avey, Reichard, Luthans and Mhatre (2011) in their meta-analysis wanted to deliver specific, evidence-based value of PsyCap and practice strategies for implementing positivity as an asset for human resource development and in the workplace as a whole. Their results show a significant positive relationship between PsyCap and desirable employee attitudes (job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and psychological well-being) as well as desirable behaviours and different measures of performance. By contrast, there was also a significant negative relationship found between PsyCap and undesirable employee attitudes (cynicism, job stress, anxiety, and turnover intentions) and behaviours (Avey, Reichard, Luthans, & Mhatre, 2011).

According to Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) attitudes and/or behavioural intentions do not continuously manifest themselves into an observable behaviour, but they often will. Therefore, the explanatory reason for the effect of PsyCap on employee attitudes is that those higher in PsyCap expect positive things to happen at work (optimism), believe they can create their own success (efficacy and hope), and are more resistant to setbacks (resilience) when compared with those lower in PsyCap. For example, greater levels of optimism linked with confidence to succeed at the moment will motivate individuals to take charge of their own future, self-select into challenging events and stick in the face of obstacles (Avey, Reichard, Luthans, & Mhatre, 2011).

As the authors anticipated, positive psychological resources, such as efficacy and optimism, could neutralize the distress from job demands such that the components of PsyCap act as suppressors of stress and anxiety. Aligned with this idea, previous research has found negative

relationships between PsyCap and stress and anxiety (Avey, Luthans, & Jensen, 2009) as well as positive relationships with psychological well-being (Avey, Luthans, Smith, & Palmer, 2010).

Overall, PsyCap should enhance the motivation for intentional behaviour toward successfully accomplishing objectives and tasks leading to a better performance than those lower in PsyCap, as they are likely to be less eager, not showing enough effort in order to manifest higher performance over extended periods of time.

Having this in mind, we can globally hypothesize that psychological capital is associated with emotional regulation strategies in such a way that:

H2a: Psychological capital is positively predicted by cognitive reappraisal.

H2b: Psychological capital is negatively predicted by emotional suppression.

Self-Efficacy

According to Bandura, “evidence shows that human accomplishments and positive well-being require an optimistic sense of personal efficacy to override the numerous impediments to success.” (2000, p. 21). Self-Efficacy represents a positive belief (not ability per se nor outcome expectancy) and was defined for the workplace by Stajkovic and Luthans (1998, p. 66) as “the employee’s conviction or confidence about his or her abilities to mobilize the motivation, cognitive resources or courses of action needed to successfully execute a specific task within a given context.”

Through a meta-analysis, Kanfer, Wanberg and Kantrowitz (2001) found that job search self-efficacy was positively related to the number of job offers and employment status, and negatively related to job search duration, something that goes aligned with Luthans, Avolio, Avey and Norman (2007) findings of self-efficacy being strongly related with performance at work as well as with Bandura’s (2000, p. 17) conclusions asserting “comparative studies show that domain linked measures of perceived efficacy are good predictors of motivation and action”. Therefore, self-efficacy has been argued to best meet the inclusion criteria for PsyCap (Luthans, Youssef, & Avolio, 2007) and to be the best predictor of job search behaviour (Crossley & Stanton, 2005).

There is also evidence that job search self-efficacy acts as a moderating variable in Kanfer, Wanberg and Kantrowitz (2001) meta-analysis which summarizes the prevailing view of job search antecedents, processes, and outcomes in their self-regulated model of job search success. Overall we anticipate that the ones who have better results regarding self-efficacy will have more confidence and be more action-oriented regarding finding a new job, which will result in a higher number of job search behaviours.

Key Non-Emotional Variables

Job Search Behaviours

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There has been a forceful increase in research on job search and unemployment. Nevertheless, different job search behavior operationalizations have been used in previous research (Wanberg, 2012) meaning, for instance, whereas certain authors have focused on the time and effort that unemployed people invest in their job search, others have looked to the nature of the sources used as well as the specific activities to find job opportunities. Such understanding is important, given that some literature advocates that both predictors and consequences of job search depend on the specific job search behaviours and sources used (Saks, 2006).

Saks and Ashfort (2000) focused their study on change in job-search behaviour, something especially important for job seekers who have been unsuccessful. Therefore, the way these job seekers respond and change their job search efforts is likely to influence the outcomes of their job search. Saks and Ashfort's (2000) work was based on three job search models which provide some clues regarding the changes that job seekers are likely to make.

Firstly, the "sequential model" proposes that job search follows a logical sequence of stages in which "search activities change sequentially and systematically over the duration of search" (Barber, Daly, Giannantonio, & Philips, 1994, p. 742). Thus, job seekers are likely to change their job search behaviour toward more planning-related activities, which Blau (1993, 1994) referred as preparatory job-search behaviour. Preparatory job-search behaviour involves gathering information and finding potential leads. The sequential model also predicts an increase in the use of formal job sources (e.g., newspaper advertisements, university placement) because they are necessary for the identification of job opportunities and are part of a more extensive search (Barber, Daly, Giannantonio, & Philips, 1994).

Secondly, the authors referred "learning model" that suggest that job seekers learn more efficient and effective search techniques during their job search (Barber, Daly, Giannantonio, & Philips, 1994). Thus, they are likely to change their job-search behaviours in ways that generate more positive outcomes. Blau (1993, 1994) has referred to these behaviours as active job-search behaviour. Active job-search behaviour involves activities associated with the actual job search such as sending out resumes and interviewing with prospective employers. In addition to an increase in active job-search behaviours, the learning model also predicts an increased use of informal job sources and job-search intensity once both are likely to lead to employment outcomes (Barber, Daly, Giannantonio, & Philips, 1994).

Lastly, and not forgetting the emotional aspect of such processes, the emotional response model asserts that job seekers experience high levels of stress and frustration that "may cause searchers to expand, contract, or otherwise modify their search activities, regardless of the utility of those activities" (Barber, Daly, Giannantonio, & Philips, 1994, p. 741). The emotional responses that result can lead to avoidance, helplessness, and withdrawal (Barber, Daly, Giannantonio, & Philips, 1994). Therefore, based on this model, job seekers will decrease their use of informal job sources - as it is stressful and requires social skills and strong self-esteem - and will also lower the intensity of their job search (Barber, Daly, Giannantonio, & Philips, 1994).

The results of a repeated measures analysis of variance indicated that, after four months in a jobless situation, job seekers reported more active job search behaviour and decreased their job-

search anxiety. Another study by those authors (Saks & Ashfort, 1999) also indicates that job search self-efficacy is the predictor of those job search behaviours.

Finally, all these elements are in line with the results from the meta-analysis that identified job search behaviour as a major determinant of finding employment (Kanfer, Wanberg, & Kantrowitz, 2001), reason why it appears as the outcome on our research model, being the closest indicator of job search success.

Having this in mind, we can globally hypothesize that psychological capital, anxiety, depression, self-efficacy, and job search behaviours are associated in such a way that:

H3a: Self-efficacy positively predicts job search behaviours.

H3b: Self-efficacy mediates the relationship between psychological capital and job search behaviours.

H3c: Self-efficacy mediates the relationship between anxiety and job search behaviours.

H3d: Self-efficacy mediates the relationship between depression and job search behaviours.

Considering the overall purpose of this study to comparatively analyze how this research model operates in unemployed individuals with outplacement support versus without that structured support, we further hypothesize that:

H4: There is a moderating effect of outplacement over the magnitude of associations found previously.

Research Model

Since some emotion-linked variables have been associated with dealing with job loss and, consequently, achieving job search success (Kanfer, Wanberg, & Kantrowitz, 2001), an understanding of the processes by which different emotional states influence/predict job search behaviours is needed. As mentioned previously, it highlights the role of psychological well-being and self-efficacy (Kanfer, Wanberg, & Kantrowitz, 2001).

This study extends the literature by applying the self-regulatory perspective of Kanfer, Wanberg and Kantrowitz (2001) in a comparison between individuals that, while unemployed, took part in an outplacement program from those who did not, which as far as we are aware has not yet been done.

This comparison aims to prove the incremental effectiveness that outplacement programs, as a job search strategy, have while looking for a new job. Although this research model was built with close reference to the work of Kanfer, Wanberg and Kantrowitz (2001), our work incorporates some other distal predictors – also “non-labour-market individual-difference variables” (Kanfer, Wanberg, & Kantrowitz, 2001, p. 838) - as we consider that there are key emotional variables that influence the process of job search. Our goal is to comparatively analyze those variables between groups (outplacement vs non-outplacement) as well as the moderating value that job search self-efficacy may

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have between the relationship of predictor variables and job search behaviours. The research model showed in Figure 1.2 summarizes the hypothesized relationships between the variables.

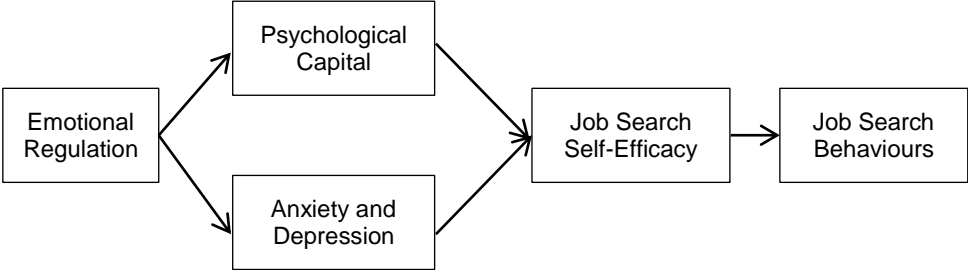


Figure 1.2 Research model

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Chapter 2. Method

This chapter focuses on the methodological aspects of our work. Firstly, it will be described sampling aspects and procedure in order to assure the replication of this study. After, psychometric analysis of the instrument will be detailed, followed by the identification of our measures. Lastly, we will present the data analysis strategy, explaining the statistical analysis applied.

Participants and Procedure

The participants were gathered using a non-probability sampling method, namely convenience sampling, within a quasi-experimental design. Therefore, there were two main sources to collect this data: first, the outplacement companies which we contacted to share our questionnaire with their former candidates and, secondly our personal and professional network. Data was collected using Qualtrics software, and analyzed with IBM SPSS Statistics 20 as well as AMOS 22.

There was one single criterion to take part in this study: to have no professional occupation and looking for a job at the time of questioning or have been in this condition in the past three years. This survey targeted two different segments, those unemployed and looking for a job, and those that have had such experience at least in the past three years. The items formulation was adjusted to present tense for the first segment and past tense for the second one (see Appendix A). Within those who were in this past condition, we divided between how long ago they were actually without a gainful occupation [1 year ago (N= 78); 2 years ago (N=44) or 3 years ago (N=35)].

The sample comprised 237 participants either supported by outplacement services (N=134) or that have made their job search autonomously (N=103). The majority of the sample (82%) has completed a bachelor or master degree. When asked about the year of completion of their last academic degree, 49.5% of the non-outplacement answers were encompassed amongst the last five years, different results when compared with 12.6% from the outplacement group. Regarding age, 36-45 years-old (35.7%) is the most common category, followed by 46-55 category (24.6%). Individuals with less than 25 years composed only 14.6% of the sample. More than half of the respondents were women (53.3%).

Psychometric Analysis of the Instrument

The quasi-experimental nature of the study and the co-existence of self-reported variables recommended a twofold data analysis procedure. The first phase focuses on psychometric properties while the second one, on hypotheses testing. For the first one, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted and judged valid on the basis of fit indices following Hu and Bentler (1995), Hair, Black, Babin and Anderson (2010), and Byrne (2001) criteria (i.e. CMIN/DF non-significant, CFI>.95, NFI>.95, RMSEA<.06, SRMR<.08 and PCFI with the highest possible value to judge on parsimony). Whenever the CFA returned invalid fit indices, an exploratory factorial analysis was conducted and later tested with a CFA for robustness sake. The exploratory factor analysis validity was judged on KMO, Measure Sampling Adequacy for each item separately, and Bartlett test of sphericity ($p<.01$). Items were excluded whenever showing commonalities below 0.500, crossloadings above 0.30 (in

orthogonal rotation cases) and if they push reliability values below the critical threshold (Cronbach alpha, above 0.70) as recommended by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994). For the second phase, we used Structural Equation Modeling with the above mentioned fit indices as validation criteria.

Measures

A survey was developed comprehending six measures further detailed in this section, namely emotional regulation, psychological capital, anxiety and depression, job search self-efficacy, job search behaviours and socio-demographics. The measures in this study were based on previous research on job search phenomena and, once most of the literature on the subject has been studied in international locations, the scales we used have no validation in the Portuguese language. Therefore, for the ones that we translated ourselves, we conducted a translation process (cf. Lyons & Chrysochoou, 2000). To see the scales on both languages refer to Appendix B.

Emotional Regulation

The Emotion Regulation Questionnaire (ERQ) is intended to assess individual differences in the typical use of two emotion regulation strategies: *cognitive reappraisal*, an antecedent focused strategy, and *expressive suppression*, a response-focused strategy (Gross, 1998). Previous literature advocated that ERQ has a high temporal and internal reliability as well as convergent and discriminant validity (Gross & John, 2003). The respondents were asked to evaluate how they control (that is, regulate and manage) their emotions when unemployed in 10 different conditions, with a scale that ranged from (1) strongly disagree to 7 (strongly agree). Although some of the sentences may seem similar to one another, they differ in important ways (e.g. *When I am feeling positive emotions, I am careful not to express them* and *When I am feeling negative emotions, I make sure not to express them*). A confirmatory factor analysis showed unacceptable fit indices (CMIN/DF=3.747 $p < .05$, CFI=0.89, NFI=0.85, PCFI=0.67, RMSEA=0.10, SRMR=0.06). Thus, an exploratory factor analysis was conducted with Kaiser criterion, showing a valid bi-factorial solution after removal of three items due to low commonalities and loadings [$KMO=0.775$, $0.641 < MSAs < 0.854$, Bartlett $X^2(21)=577.146$, $p < .001$] with Cognitive reappraisal (4 items, e.g. *When I want to feel less negative emotion (such as sadness or anger), I change what I'm thinking about; When I want to feel more positive emotion, I change the way I'm thinking about the situation; I control my emotions by changing the way I think about the situation I'm in; When I want to feel less negative emotion, I change the way I'm thinking about the situation*; Cronbach alpha=0.84) and Expressive suppression (3 items, e.g. *I keep my emotions to myself, When I am feeling positive emotions, I am careful not to express them, I control my emotions by not expressing them*; Cronbach alpha=0.70) explaining, after a Varimax rotation, 66.4% of total variance. This solution was later corroborated via confirmatory factor analysis (CMIN/DF=1.164 $p > .05$, CFI=0.99, NFI=0.97, PCFI=0.61, RMSEA=0.02, SRMR=0.03).

Psychological Capital

We use the term *psychological capital* to represent individual motivational propensities that accrue through a positive psychological construct. As mentioned earlier in this study, we used PsyCap (Luthans, 2002). PsyCap constructs fit in the continuum as being state-like, that is, they are not as stable and are more open to change and development compared with “trait-like” constructs such as Big Five personality dimensions or core self-evaluations, but importantly they also are not momentary states (Luthans, Avolio, Avey, & Norman, 2007).

Respondents were asked to anticipate the situation where they already found a new employment status (or, for those who have already found it, that reminded that moment) and to describe their typical behaviour in that context. For that, it was given 12 items (e.g., *I feel confident in representing my work area in meetings with management* or *I can be “on my own” so to speak at work if I have to*) whose response scale ranged from *totally disagree* (1) to *totally agree* (6).

A CFA conducted on this five factor solution with a one second order factor showed unacceptable fit indices (CMIN/DF=3.497, $p < 0.00$; CFI=0.95; NFI=0.93, PCFI=0.734; RMSEA=0.102, SRMR=.042). The exploratory factor analysis conducted at a second order level, showed a one-factor valid solution (KMO=0.824, Bartlett test $X^2(6)=603,863$, $p < .000$, $0.758 < MSA < 0.899$) explaining 78.8% of variance and with high internal consistency (Cronbach $\alpha = .90$) later corroborated by a CFA with the exclusion of one item from Resiliency subscale (CMIN/DF=2.615, $p < .05$; CFI=0.97; NFI=0.95, PCFI=0.741; RMSEA=0.08, SRMR=.032) judging on the specific configuration of CMIN<3.0, CFI>.90 and RMSEA<.08 according with Hair, Black, Babin and Anderson (2010).

Anxiety and Depression

Anxiety and depression was measured based on Zigmond and Snaith's (1983) Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale (HADS) comprehending two sub-scales (7 items each) that act as independent measures which performed well in screening for the separate dimensions of anxiety and depression (Bjelland, Dahl, Haug, & Neckelmann, 2002) in the general population. Each item is answered on a four point response category - (0) *never* to (3) *most of the time* - so that the possible scores ranged from 0 to 21 both for anxiety and depression, which enables, posteriorly, a division of each mood state into four ranges: normal, mild, moderate and severe.

A CFA conducted on this two factor solution showed unacceptable fit indices (CMIN/DF=6.392, $p < 0.00$; CFI=0.80; NFI=0.78, PCFI=0.648; RMSEA=0.149, SRMR=.109). Therefore we conducted an exploratory factor analysis which, after a varimax rotation showed a valid two-factor solution (KMO=0.869, Bartlett test $X^2(28)=966,747$, $p < .000$, $0.830 < MSA < 0.915$) which preserved four items in each dimension explaining 70.2% of variance after rotation (Varimax) and with high internal consistency (Anxiety, Cronbach $\alpha = .86$; and Depression $\alpha = .84$) later corroborated by a CFA (CMIN/DF=1.496, $p > .05$; CFI=0.99; NFI=0.97, PCFI=0.672; RMSEA=0.045, SRMR=.031).

Job Search Self-Efficacy

Job Search Self-Efficacy was measured using job-search self-efficacy scale by van Ryn and Vinokur's (1992). The scale has a total of six items and assesses one's confidence to execute certain

job search tasks. As the original response scale, we ranged the responses from 1 (*not at all confident*) to 5 (*great deal confident*).

A CFA for a single factor solution showed unacceptable fit indices (CMIN/DF=32.430, $p < 0.00$; CFI=0.67; NFI=0.67, PCFI=0.408; RMSEA=0.362, SRMR=.11). The ensuing exploratory factor analysis showed a valid single-factor solution (KMO=0.775, Bartlett test $X^2(6)=395,643$, $p < .000$, $0.714 < MSA < 0.897$) after removal of two items, explaining 66.4% of variance and with high internal consistency (Cronbach $\alpha = .81$) later corroborated by a CFA (CMIN/DF=1.698, $p > .05$; CFI=0.99; NFI=0.97, PCFI=0.672; RMSEA=0.045, SRMR=.031).

Job Search Behaviours

Based on Blau's (1994) job search behaviour scale revised by van Hooft, Born, Taris, van der Flier, and Blonk (2004), respondents were asked to indicate how much time they spent on 6 job search activities chosen for being the most representative job search behaviours in Portuguese market labour. These preserved the original two factor structure thus comprehending 6 behaviours (6 items, e.g. *Making inquiries/read about getting a job; read classified/help wanted ads*, etc). Participants were required to answer on a response scale ranging from 1 (*no time at all*) to 5 (*very much time*).

A CFA conducted on this two factor solution showed unacceptable fit indices (CMIN/DF=5.615, $p < 0.00$; CFI=0.75; NFI=0.72, PCFI=0.593; RMSEA=0.152, SRMR=.088). Therefore we conducted an exploratory factor analysis which, after an oblimin rotation showed a valid two first order factor solution (KMO=0.785, Bartlett test $X^2(15)=427,909$, $p < .000$, $0.712 < MSA < 0.858$) which preserved three items in each dimension explaining 65.2% of variance after rotation. High crossloadings suggested a single second order factor which was corroborated by a CFA (CMIN/DF=1.258, $p > .05$; CFI=0.99; NFI=0.97, PCFI=0.464; RMSEA=0.033, SRMR=.0289) and shows high internal consistency (Cronbach $\alpha = .775$).

Control Variables

Firstly, we asked when was the last time participants were without gainful occupation (unemployed) and actively looking for a new job, of which response options ranged from "I find myself currently looking for new job" to one, two, and three years ago. In order to divide participants by groups (outplacement vs non-outplacement), we inquired them regarding which resources they could rely on for that period of job search, giving a choice between "employment center services", "outplacement programs", "without any help finding a new job" or "other situation", and then specify which one.

Participants were asked as well for how long (in months) they considered themselves able to keep up with the financial resources they had while preserving the same living standards. We wanted to know also if, while planning job search activities, they could count with the regular support from family, friends or former colleagues.

Lastly, to better study our participants, we measured the usual control variables. Thus, we asked respondents about their sex, age, education and when do they had finalized their studies.

Data Analysis Strategy

Statistical Analysis

It is commonly assumed that variables are associated in a linear fashion however, within the realm of psychology, dynamics may follow a nonlinear relationship (e.g. Guastello, 2001). Thus, in order to analyze the data we used WarpPLS 5.0, a Partial Least Squares (PLS) based on structural equation modeling (SEM) software that is suitable to identify nonlinear functions connecting pairs of latent variables in SEM models and calculating multivariate coefficients of association. Indeed, it identifies nonlinear or “warped” relationships between latent variables and regulates the values of path coefficients accordingly. However, this software doesn’t neglect linear relations, modeling those using standard PLS regression algorithm with one difference: when comparing to covariance based SEM (CBSEM), it is less restrictive in its distributional assumptions and regarding demands on minimal sample size. Besides, PLS is desirable to CBSEM when the focus is on predicting and developing theory or when models with numerous indicators and/or latent variables are tested (Chin, 2010).

WarpPLS also calculates P values for path coefficients, model fit indices and multicollinearity estimates (VIF coefficients). P value is provided once it is more meaningful than T values for hypothesis testing purposes. This is due to the fact that P values reflect not only the strength of the relationship, which is already provided by the path coefficient itself, but also the power of the test, which increases with sample size (Kock, 2015). Regarding model fit indices, it comprises the Average Path Coefficients (APC), the Average R-Square (ARS) and the Average Variance Inflation Factor (AVIF). Kock (2015, p.50) suggests that “if the goal is to find out whether one model has a better fit with the original data than another, then the model fit indices are a useful set of measures related to model quality.” It is recommended that the P values for both the APC and ARS are both below .05 and that the AVIF should be equal to or lower than 3.3, particularly in models where most of the variables are measured through two or more indicators (Kock, 2015).

In order to guarantee that only reliable and valid measures are used before assessing the nature of relationships in the overall model, WarpPLS also permits the evaluation of the measurement model (outer model), meaning the relationships between manifest variables (observed items) and latent variables. Convergent validity is tested using items’ loadings, meaning higher loadings proves that the variance shared between the construct and its indicators is bigger than error variance. It is recommended that the P values associated with the loadings should be lower than .05 and that the loading should be equal to or greater than .05 (Kock, 2015).

Scale reliability is measured using composite reliability which offers a better estimate of variance shared by the respective indicators than Cronbach’s alpha and uses the item loadings obtained within the nomological network (Hair et al., 2010). Composite reliability should be equal or greater than .70 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Discriminant validity is measured by average variances extracted (AVE) provided for all latent variables. An AVE value greater than .50 shows that a latent variable explains more than half of the variance. The square root of the AVE should also be, for each latent variable, higher than any of the correlations relating that latent variable.

Regarding full collinearity, it is recommended that VIFs should be below 3.3 as high VIFs suggest that the indicators measure the same facet of a formative construct. However, according to Kock (2015), less conservative criterion admit VIFs lower than 5 or even 10.

Chapter 3. Results

In this chapter we will, firstly, describe the variable's coefficients and correlations and, posteriorly, one overall model as well as two structural models will be presented, the one that gather all the respondents that passed through an outplacement counseling and other based on non-outplacement responses. After, we will present the results of the tests conducted to investigate the hypotheses formulated in Chapter I, complemented with some additional analysis.

Latent Variables Coefficients and Correlations

Table 3.1 presents the latent variables coefficients', scales' reliabilities, AVEs and full VIFs for this study. All measures demonstrated adequate internal consistency (CRs > .70), good discriminant validity (mean AVE = 62.5%, ranging from 43.6% to 71%) and no collinearity problems, including common method bias (full VIFs < 3.3).

Table 3.1

Latent Variable's Coefficients for WarpPLS

Variable	Items	CR	AVE	Full VIF
1. Cognitive Reappraisal (CR)	4	.881	.651	1.084
2. Expressive Suppression (ES)	3	.826	.615	1.119
3. Psycap (P)	11	.904	.701	1.860
4. Anxiety (A)	4	.887	.663	1.997
5. Depression (D)	4	.853	.597	1.493
6. Job Search Self-Efficacy (SE)	4	.822	.436	1.218
7. Job Search Behaviours (JSB)	6	.907	.710	1.408

Note. CR = composite reliability; AVE = average variances extracted; VIF = variance inflation factor.

Table 3.2 displays mean, SD, correlations and square roots of AVEs for each variable. As shown, cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression are significantly related among themselves ($r = .187$; $p < .01$). However, the only significant association between those and other variables is between expressive suppression with anxiety and depression ($r = .224$ and $.232$, respectively; $p < .001$). Likewise, anxiety and depression are significantly related among themselves ($r = .662$; $p < .001$), as well negatively related with Psycap ($r = -.179$ and $-.279$, respectively; $p < .001$). On the contrary, Psycap is positively associated with self-efficacy as well as job search behaviour ($r = .485$ and $.267$, respectively; $p < .001$). Finally, self-efficacy, in addition to Psycap, shows a significant negative relationship with depression and a positive one with job search behaviours ($r = -.280$ and $.333$, respectively; $p < .001$), but not with anxiety.

As there is no correlation between variables higher than the square root of their AVEs, none of the relationships indicate potential discriminant validity issues.

Table 3.2

Latent Variables Correlations for WarpPLS

Variable	M Non-OPC	M OPC	M Overall	SD Overall	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. CR	4.08	3.82	3.94	.93	(.807)					
2. ES	2.93	3.04	3.00	.92	.187**	(.784)				
3. Psycap	4.61	4.76	4.72	.72	.083	-.098	(.843)			
4. Anxiety	1.23	1.22	1.23	0.69	.063	.224***	-.179***	(.837)		
5. Depression	1.20	1.23	1.22	0.66	-.023	.232***	-.279***	.662***	(.815)	
6. SE	3.73	402	3.89	0.61	-.060	-.074	.485***	-.121	-.280**	(.773)
7. JSB	3.01	3.32	3.18	0.69	.067	-.050	.267***	.140*	.050	.333***

Note: Square roots of average variances extracted (AVEs) shown on diagonal (within parentheses); CR = Cognitive Reappraisal; ES = Expressive Suppression; SE = Job Search Self-Efficacy; JSB = Job Search Behaviours; Pearson's r correlation coefficients: $p \leq .05$ * $p \leq .01$ ** $p \leq .001$ ***

Structural Models

This section presents the results of three structural models, first for our overall model, other for non-outplacement group and the last one for outplacement group. CR, AVE and full VIFs from each latent variable were validated. For simplicity motives, the figures only illustrate the significant relationships, including also beta coefficients (β), effect sizes (f^2) and the R^2 values. For effect sizes, WarpPLS reports Cohen's (1988) f^2 coefficients, i.e., the absolute values of each contribution of the predictor latent variables correspondent to the R^2 coefficients of the criterion latent variable. It is suggested that .02 values are small, 0.15 values are considered medium, and the ones reaching 0.35 are considered large (Kock, 2015).

Overall Model

All the fit indicators follow the desirable norm i.e., APC and ARS are both significant (APC = .191; $p < .001$; ARS = .152; $p = .004$) and AVIF is below 5 (1.458).

Regarding the relationship between emotional regulation with anxiety and depression, results indicate that CR and ES explain only 17% of the summed variance of anxiety and depression ($R^2 = .10$ and $R^2 = .07$, respectively). The strongest predictor is Cognitive Reappraisal, showing significant links with both Psycap and anxiety and depression, particularly with anxiety ($\beta = .22$; $p < 0.01$; $f^2 = .05$). Expressive Suppression shows two significant links with anxiety ($\beta = .21$; $p < 0.01$; $f^2 = .05$) and depression ($\beta = .22$; $p < 0.05$; $f^2 = .05$).

Regarding the relationship with job search behaviours, results indicate that Psycap, anxiety and depression are direct predictors of this outcome, although with small effect sizes ($\beta = .22$; $p < 0.01$; $f^2 = .07$; $\beta = .18$; $p < 0.01$; $f^2 = .03$ and $\beta = .13$; $p < 0.05$; $f^2 = .02$, respectively).

Regarding self-efficacy as a mediator, we tested the significance of mediating effects with WarpPLS (Kock, 2014) using the Baron and Kenny's (1986) approach for depression, Psycap and anxiety relationships with JSB. Regarding Psycap, with the entrance of SE in the model there is a decrease of the direct effect with JSB, both significant (from $\beta = .57$; $p < 0.01$; $f^2 = .33$ to $\beta = .22$; $p <$

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0.01; $f^2 = .07$). Once the indirect effect is also significant (via SE) - meaning that both links between Psycap and SE and between SE and JSB are significant ($\beta = .54$; $p < 0.01$; $f^2 = .31$ and $\beta = .26$; $p < 0.01$; $f^2 = .09$, respectively) we are facing a partial mediation (Sobel's $Z = 3.79$; $p = .001$). Depression, on the contrary, does not decrease the direct effect with JSB with the entrance of mediator (from $\beta = .12$; $p < 0.05$; $f^2 = .02$ to $\beta = .13$; $p < 0.05$; $f^2 = .02$) meaning that, although the indirect effect is significant, there is no mediating effect. Finally, anxiety does not have a significant relationship with SE in this model but, when controlling every other variables, there is indeed a significant indirect path – both between anxiety and SE and between SE and JSB ($\beta = .19$; $p < 0.01$; $f^2 = .04$ and $\beta = .36$; $p < 0.01$; $f^2 = .12$, respectively). However, the relationship between anxiety with JSB increases with the entrance of mediator (from $\beta = .17$; $p < 0.01$; $f^2 = .03$ to $\beta = .20$; $p < 0.01$; $f^2 = .04$), meaning that, just like depression, there is no mediating effect between anxiety and JSB.

It is also noteworthy that all the relationships in this model appear as warped, meaning, they are nonlinear. In the next two models we will further explain the kind of warped relationships we can see between latent variables.

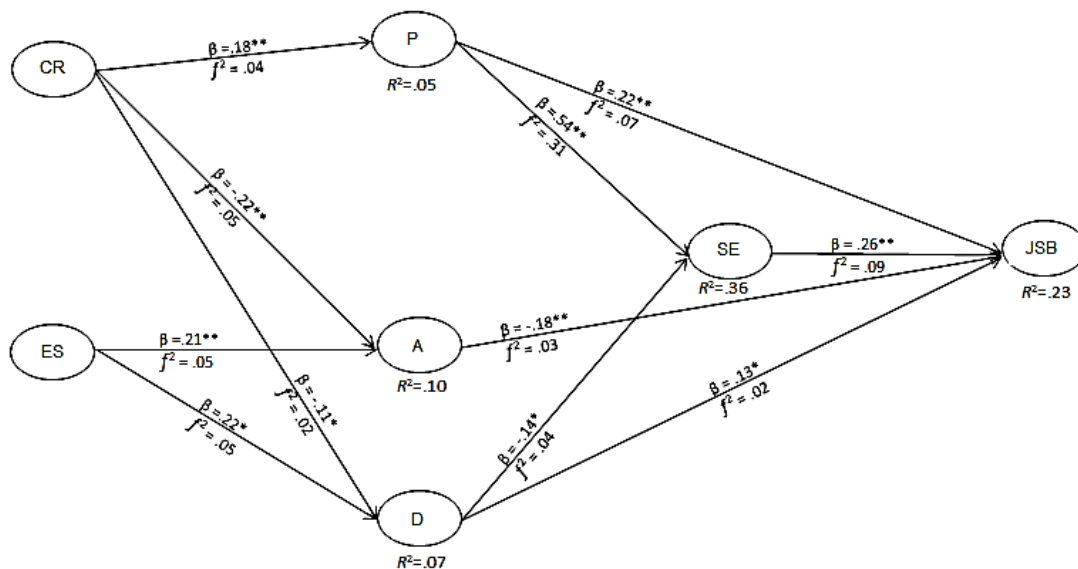


Figure 3.1 Model with significant paths – Overall model. CR = Cognitive Reappraisal; ES = Expressive Suppression; P = Psycap; A = Anxiety; D = Depression; SE = Job Search Self-Efficacy; JSB = Job Search Behaviours. Pearson's r correlation coefficients: $p \leq .05$ * $p \leq .01$ ** $p \leq .001$ ***

Non-Outplacement Group

When looking into the non-outplacement model, all the fit indicators follow the desirable norm i.e., APC and ARS are both significant (APC = .230; $p = .004$; ARS = .140; $p = .036$) and AVIF is below 5 (1.087).

Regarding the relationship between emotional regulation with anxiety and depression, results indicate that CR and ES explain 34% of the summed variance of anxiety and depression ($R^2 = .20$ and $R^2 = .14$, respectively). The strongest predictor is Cognitive Reappraisal, showing significant links with both Psycap and anxiety and depression, particularly with anxiety ($\beta = .41$; $p < 0.01$; $f^2 = .17$).

Expressive Suppression shows two significant links with anxiety ($\beta = .18$; $p < 0.05$; $f^2 = .03$) and depression ($\beta = .19$; $p < 0.05$; $f^2 = .03$).

As for the relationship with job search behaviours, results indicate that Psycap and anxiety are direct predictors of this outcome, although with small effect sizes ($\beta = .19$; $p < 0.05$; $f^2 = .05$ and $\beta = .17$; $p < 0.05$; $f^2 = .04$, respectively).

Regarding self-efficacy as a mediator, we tested the significance of mediating effects for depression, Psycap and anxiety relationships with JSB. Indeed, the relationship between depression and JSB without SE being included in the model is significant ($\beta = .16$; $p < 0.05$; $f^2 = .03$). However, with the entrance of SE as mediator, that relationship becomes insignificant. Nevertheless, the indirect effect (via SE) is significant once both paths depression – SE and SE – JSB are significant ($\beta = -.22$; $p < 0.01$; $f^2 = .06$ and $\beta = -.31$; $p < 0.01$; $f^2 = .12$, respectively). Sobel's mediation test supported these conclusions (Sobel's $Z = 1.85$; $p = .03$). Regarding Psycap, the entrance of SE only diminish the direct relationship of Psycap with JSB (from $\beta = .27$; $p < 0.01$; $f^2 = .07$ to $\beta = .19$; $p < 0.05$; $f^2 = .05$). Here we have a partial mediation once indirect effects are significant as well (Sobel's $Z = -2.93$, $p = .004$). Finally, anxiety does not have a significant relationship with SE, therefore there is no mediating effect. Altogether, the above results show that self-efficacy fully mediates the link between depression and JSB; partially mediates the link between Psycap with JSB and does not act as mediator in the link between anxiety and JSB.

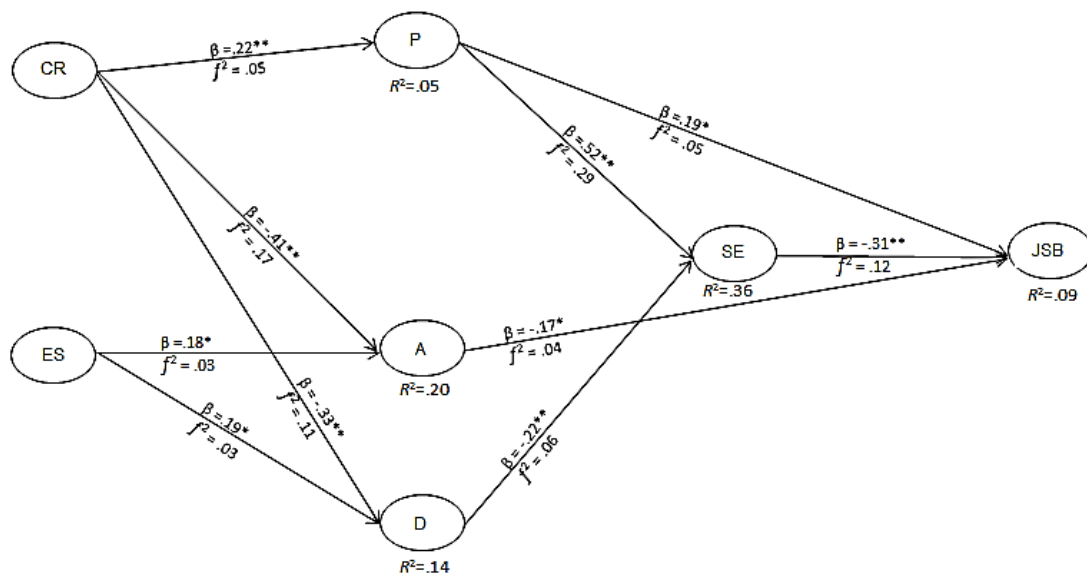


Figure 3.2 Model with significant paths – Non-Outplacement Group. CR = Cognitive Reappraisal; ES = Expressive Suppression; P = Psycap; A = Anxiety; D = Depression; SE = Job Search Self-Efficacy; JSB = Job Search Behaviours. Pearson's r correlation coefficients: $p \leq .05^*$ $p \leq .01^{**}$ $p \leq .001^{***}$

Lastly, it is worth mentioning that all the relationships among the variables in this model are nonlinear. For example, the link between self-efficacy and job search behaviours takes the form of an inverted S-curve, having a negative slope, unlike Psycap or anxiety links with JSB which reveals a S-curve form, but with a slightly positive slope. In this case, the optimal point seems to be situated at 2.21 SD above the mean (Figure 3.3). The link between cognitive reappraisal and anxiety looks similar

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but with a more clear inverted S-curve form, declining mostly at approximately 1 SD below the mean (Figure 3.4). In this case, the optimal point seems to be situated at 2.13 SD above the mean. Regarding other cognitive reappraisal's links, the one with depression takes a similar form of anxiety but, on the contrary, the link with Psycap presents a positive slope.

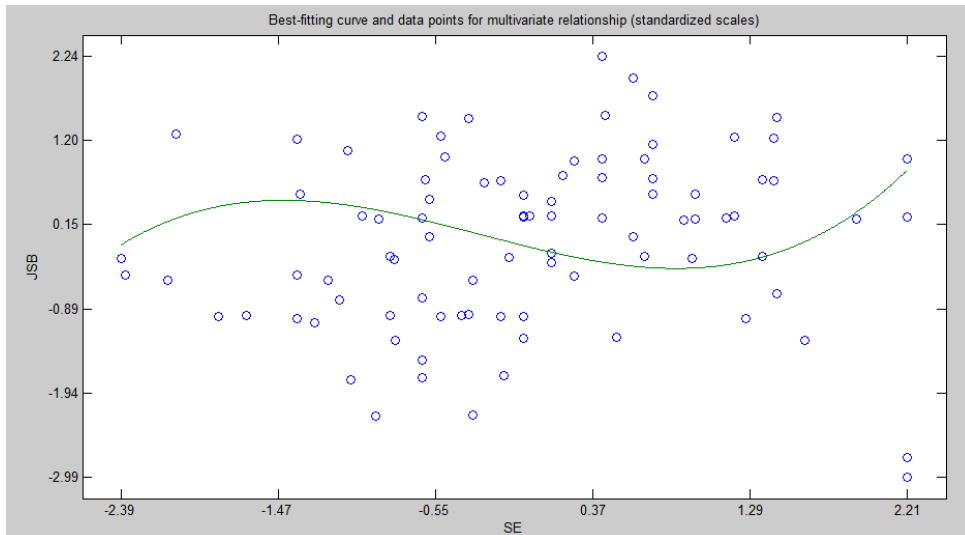


Figure 3.3 Inverted-S-curved relationship between self-efficacy and job search behaviours (standardized values). SE = job search self-efficacy; JSB = job search behaviours.

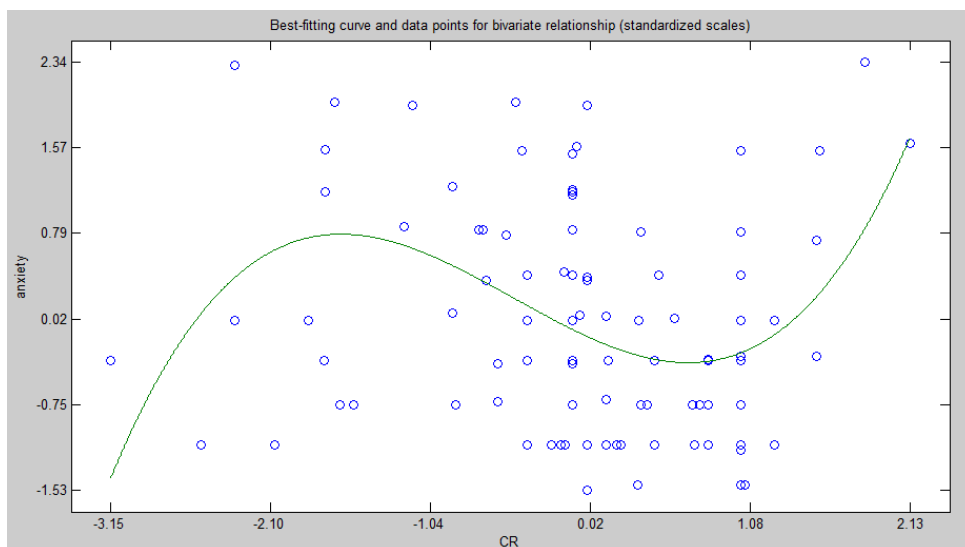


Figure 3.4 Inverted S-curved relationship between cognitive reappraisal and anxiety (standardized values). CR = cognitive reappraisal.

Outplacement Group

Regarding outplacement model, all the fit indicators follow the norm i.e., APC and ARS are both significant (APC = .229; $p = .001$; ARS = .188; $p = .006$) and AVIF is below 5 (1.276).

Regarding the relationship between emotional regulation and anxiety and depression, results indicate that CR and ES explain 34% of the summed variance of anxiety and depression ($R^2 = .17$, for

both of them). The strongest predictor is Cognitive Reappraisal, showing significant links with both Psycap and anxiety and depression, particularly with anxiety ($\beta = .29$; $p < 0.01$; $f^2 = .10$). Expressive Suppression shows two significant links with anxiety ($\beta = .22$; $p < 0.01$; $f^2 = .07$) and depression ($\beta = .34$; $p < 0.01$; $f^2 = .13$).

As for the relationship with job search behaviours, results indicate that Psycap ($\beta = .16$; $p < 0.05$; $f^2 = .04$) as well as anxiety and depression are direct predictors of this outcome, although with small effect sizes ($\beta = .30$; $p < 0.01$; $f^2 = .05$ and $\beta = .14$; $p < 0.05$; $f^2 = .02$, respectively). Moreover, the mediating role of SE was also analyzed. Once anxiety and depression direct relationships with SE are not significant, there is no mediating effect with those predictors. Regarding Psycap, with the entrance of SE in the model there is a decrease of the direct effect with JSB, both significant (from $\beta = .28$; $p < 0.01$; $f^2 = .08$ to $\beta = .16$; $p < 0.05$; $f^2 = .04$). Once the indirect effect is also significant (via SE) - meaning that both links between Psycap and SE and between SE and JSB are significant ($\beta = .48$; $p < 0.01$; $f^2 = .26$ and $\beta = .40$; $p < 0.01$; $f^2 = .16$, respectively) we are facing a partial mediation (Sobel's $Z = 3.90$; $p = .001$).

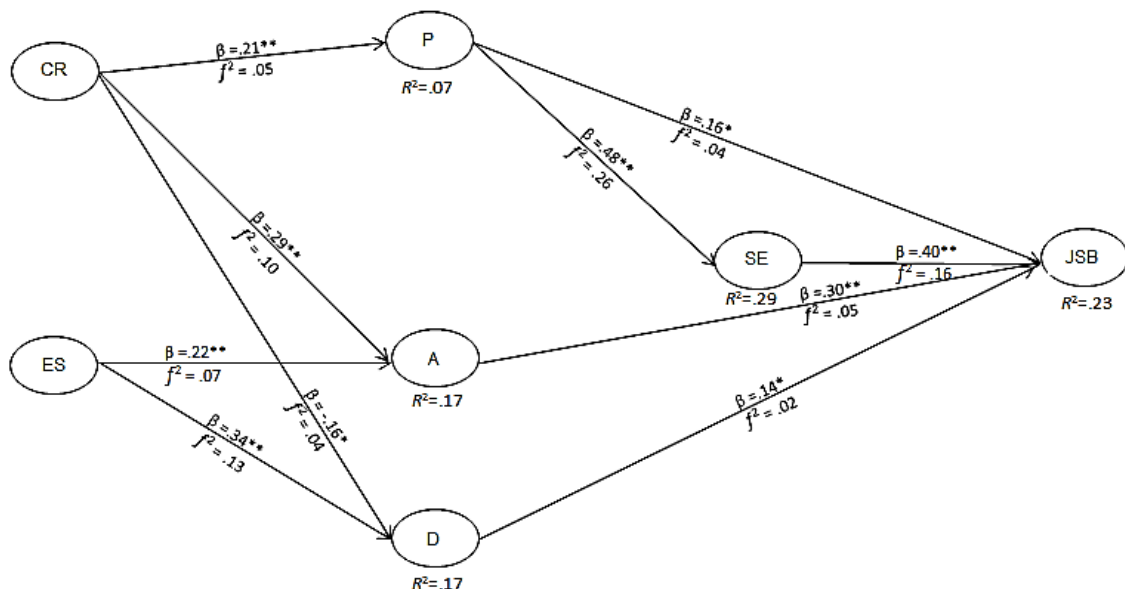


Figure 3.5 Model with significant paths – Outplacement Group. CR = Cognitive Reappraisal; ES = Expressive Suppression; P = Psycap; A = Anxiety; D = Depression; SE = Job Search Self-Efficacy; JSB = Job Search Behaviours. Pearson's r correlation coefficients: $p \leq .05$ * $p \leq .01$ ** $p \leq .001$ ***

Lastly, all the relationships among the variables are nonlinear once again. For instance, the link between anxiety and job search behaviours resembles an inverted U-curve with the turning point at about 0.77 above the mean (Figure 3.6). On the other hand, the link between self-efficacy and job search behaviours looks almost linear, especially between 2 SD below mean and 1 SD above the mean (Figure 3.7), with a peak at about 1.53 SD above the mean. Regarding other links with JSB, Psycap presents a form almost linear but with a less increasing rate and depression presents a distended negative slope.

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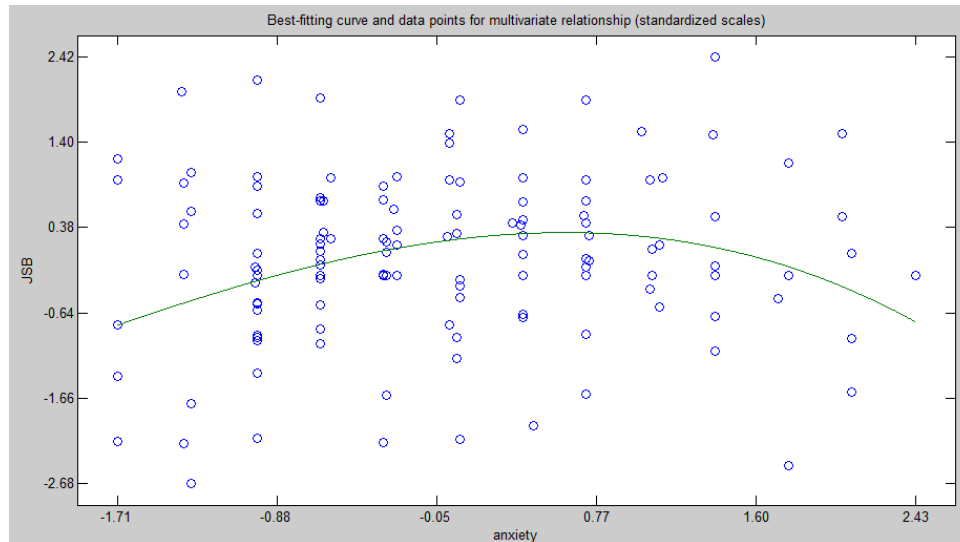


Figure 3.6 Inverted U-curved relationship between anxiety and job search behaviours (standardized values). JSB = job search behaviours.

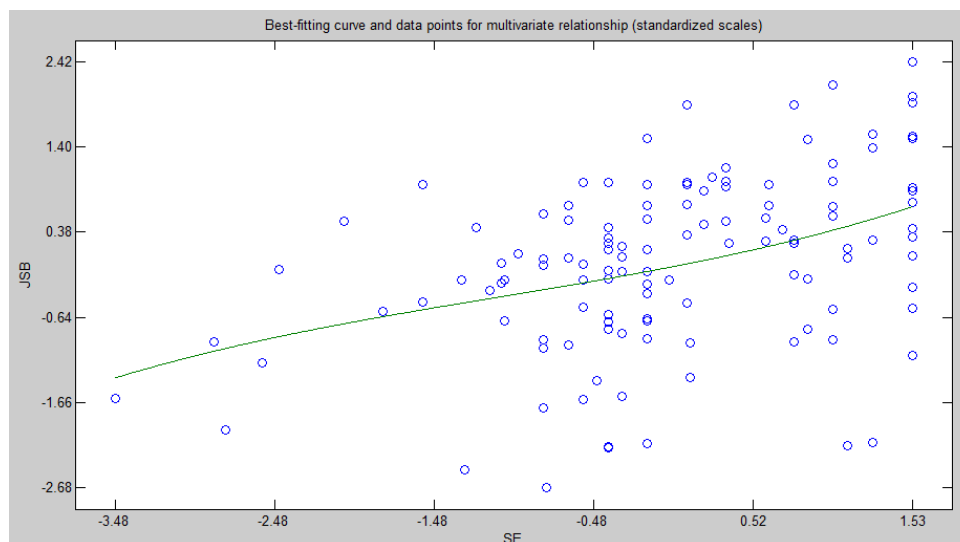


Figure 3.7 Warped relationship between self-efficacy and job search behaviours (standardized values). JSB = job search behaviours.

Test of Hypotheses

In this chapter we will firstly attempt to prove that our research model is explanatory and then perform a comparison between outplacement and non-outplacement groups. Having this said, we will describe each hypothesis and assess its full or partial confirmation regarding our global sample, meaning our overall model.

Regarding our first hypotheses, the findings concerning the influence that anxiety and depression have on cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression are, both of them, fully

supported. First, we can see that, although with small effects, anxiety and depression are negatively associated with CR ($\beta_{\text{anxiety}} = -.22$; $p < 0.01$; $f^2 = .05$; $\beta_{\text{depression}} = -.11$; $p < 0.05$; $f^2 = .02$) and, in the same sense, both are positively associated with ES ($\beta_{\text{anxiety}} = .21$; $p < 0.01$; $f^2 = .05$; $\beta_{\text{depression}} = .22$; $p < 0.05$; $f^2 = .05$), supporting Hypothesis 1a and Hypothesis 1b, respectively. Altogether, these relationships with anxiety and depression explained 10% and 7% of the total variance of these variables ($R^2 = .10$ and $.07$, respectively), meaning, the contribution of CR and ES as predictor variables for those latent variables is significant, but with small effects.

When analyzing our second hypothesis, we can conclude that it is only partially supported. Psycap is indeed positively predicted by CR ($\beta = .18$; $p < 0.01$; $f^2 = .04$) supporting Hypothesis 2a and this relationship explains 5% of the total variation of Psycap ($R^2 = .05$). However, Psycap was only negatively marginally associated with ES ($\beta = -.10$; $p = 0.06$; $f^2 = .01$), not fully supporting Hypothesis 2b that postulates that Psycap is negatively predicted by ES.

After testing the relationship between both mechanisms of emotional regulation with Psycap, anxiety and depression we will focus on the part of our research model more closely related with job search. Hypothesis 3 predicted that job search behaviours will be positively predicted by job search self-efficacy or, in another words, the sense of being able to perform certain behaviours will potentiate the performance of those same behaviours. Moreover, SE could be both direct predictor of JSB as well as mediator of other relationships between antecedents of job search with JSB. Indeed, Hypothesis 3a is corroborated once there is a direct effect of SE on JSB ($\beta = .26$; $p < 0.01$; $f^2 = .09$). Regarding the moderating relationships, as described in the previous section of this study, there is a partial mediation between Psycap and JSB, once the direct effect diminishes but remains significant with the entrance of SE as a mediator. This means Hypothesis 3b is supported once there is a mediating effect. Depression and anxiety, on the other hand, do not decrease their direct effects with JSB when the mediator comes into the relationship, revealing that there is no mediating effect. Thus, hypotheses 3c and 3d have no support.

After testing our hypotheses on the overall model, we will now perform the comparison between groups, outplacement and non-outplacement, regarding our Hypotheses 1, 2 and 3. In addition, we will create on WarpPLS another latent variable – OPC - and linked it as moderator in our existing relationships. For parsimony sake, we shall report only data findings for the interaction terms that are found significant.

Firstly, and focusing on the Hypotheses 1a and 1b, we can conclude that results corroborate our premises. Centering on expressive suppression, in both groups the relationships demonstrate a positive direction between ES and depression or anxiety. This means Hypothesis 1b is corroborated on both models. Moreover, and in line with our Hypothesis 4, although we did not found an OPC significant moderation effect between models on these relationships, they present stronger path coefficients, biggest effect sizes and more variance explained in outplacement model (see Figure 3.2 and 3.5).

Regarding cognitive reappraisal, it negatively predicts anxiety and depression in non-OPC group but, on OPC model, we cannot see this pattern once the relationship between CR and anxiety is actually positive ($\beta = .29$; $p < 0.01$; $f^2 = .10$). This means Hypothesis 1a is fully supported in non-OPC

model and only partially supported in OPC model. Nonetheless, when testing the moderating effect of OPC as a latent variable between this relationships on the overall model, we conclude that there are significant differences between groups in the relationship between CR and anxiety ($\beta = .12$; $p < 0.05$; $f^2 = .03$) and with depression ($\beta = .17$; $p < 0.01$; $f^2 = .04$). In figure 3.8 we demonstrate the example of the moderating effect of OPC between CR and depression, where we can see – in a two-dimensional graph automatically created by WarpPLS – that, firstly, both relationships are clearly warped (non-linear) and have various crossing points that indicate a moderation. Thus, when the CR is low, we can see that the OPC group reports more depression (at -3.18 SD below the mean) and, on the contrary, when CR is higher, people from non-OPC group report more depression (at 2.24 SD above the mean).

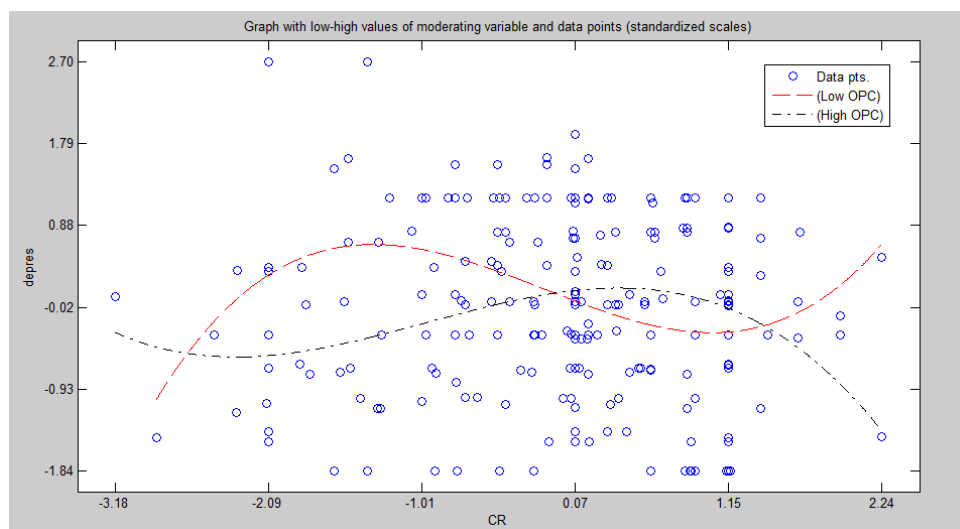


Figure 3.8 Two-dimensional graph: moderating effect of OPC between cognitive reappraisal and depression (standardized values). CR = Cognitive Reappraisal; OPC = Outplacement; depres = Depression.

When analyzing Hypotheses 2, CR demonstrates a positive relation with Psycap, so we can conclude that Hypothesis 2a is supported in both models, with identical values ($\beta_{\text{non-OPC}} = .22$; $p = 0.01$; $f^2 = .05$ and $\beta_{\text{OPC}} = .21$; $p = 0.01$; $f^2 = .05$). This means there is no significant influence of OPC in this relationship. In the same sense, ES does not present a significant relation with Psycap in both models, meaning Hypothesis 2b is not supported in both conditions.

Regarding Hypothesis 3a, we can observe the opposite relationship between groups. Although both significant, in non-OPC group self-efficacy negatively predicts JSB ($\beta = -.31$; $p < 0.01$) with medium effect sizes ($f^2 = .12$) whereas in OPC group self-efficacy positively predicts JSB ($\beta = .40$; $p < 0.01$) with medium effect sizes as well ($f^2 = .16$). This means that Hypothesis 3a is supported in OPC group but not in non-OPC group. There are also considerable differences on the total variance explained of those latent variables. In non-OPC group, SE has 36% of variance explained while JSB has only 9%. In OPC group, the percentage for those same latent variables is 29% and, remarkably different, 23%, respectively. When testing the moderating effect of OPC as a latent variable between this relationship on the overall model, we can conclude that there are significant differences between

groups ($\beta = .16$; $p < 0.01$; $f^2 = .04$). In Figure 3.9 we can observe this moderating relationship, where the slope of the relationship between SE and JSB increases as OPC appears. Although the program does not report it that way, as OPC is a dichotomous variable (being 0 = non-outplacement and 1 = outplacement), we should only consider the difference between the lowest (as non-outplacement) and the higher number (as outplacement).

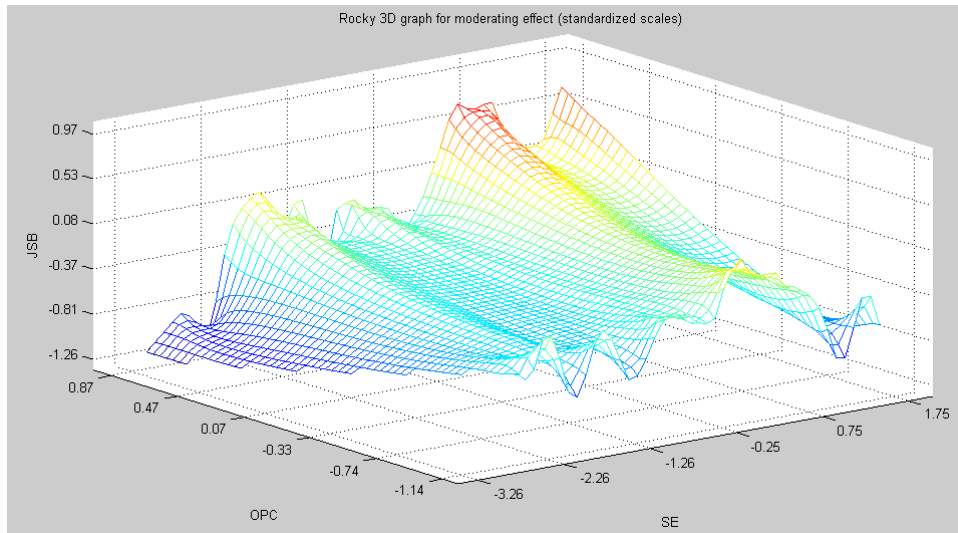


Figure 3.9 Three-dimensional graph: moderating effect of OPC between self-efficacy and job search behaviours (standardized values). SE = Self-Efficacy; OPC = Outplacement; JSB = job search behaviours

Regarding relationships with self-efficacy as mediator, we will divide the comparison between predictor variables. Psycap presents a partially mediated relationship with JSB on both groups, meaning Hypothesis 3b supported on both. Anxiety does not have a significant direct effect with the mediator on both groups, which makes it impossible for a mediated relationship to appear resulting in no support for Hypothesis 3c in both cases. At last, depression presents a fully mediated relationship with JSB in non-OPC model whereas, as it does not have a significant direct relationship with SE, there is no mediation with depression as predictor variable in OPC model. Concluding, regarding depression, there is no support for Hypothesis 3d in OPC group but, in non-OPC group this hypothesis is fully supported.

Chapter 4. Discussion

Our goal is to comparatively analyze the effect that emotion-linked variables such as emotional regulation, psychological capital, anxiety and depression have on job search behaviours of two groups: respondents that, while unemployed, had outplacement support and, on the other hand, respondents that did not had any support when in a jobless situation. In addition, we tested as well the mediator role that job search self-efficacy may have between the relationship of those predictor variables and job search behaviours.

The support for each of our hypotheses is displayed in Table 4.1. Tests of Hypotheses 1 provided full support for anxiety and depression being, indeed, negatively predicted by cognitive reappraisal (H_{1a}) and positively predicted by expressive suppression (H_{1b}). Only in OPC group this assumption was partially supported once the relationship between cognitive reappraisal and anxiety revealed a positive slope. Psycap was found to be positively predicted by cognitive reappraisal (H_{2a}) on the three models thus it offer full support for the hypothesized relationship. On the other hand, there was no support for the negative relationship between Psycap and expressive suppression (H_{2b}) in any of the models.

Table 4.1

Summary of the support obtained in the test of hypotheses in the overall model and in each group

	Overall Model	Non-Outplacement Group	Outplacement Group
Hypothesis 1			
Hypothesis 1a	●	●	●
Hypothesis 1b	●	●	●
Hypothesis 2			
Hypothesis 2a	●	●	●
Hypothesis 2b	○	○	○
Hypothesis 3			
Hypothesis 3a	●	○	●
Hypothesis 3b	●	●	●
Hypothesis 3c	○	○	○
Hypothesis 3d	○	●	○
Hypothesis 4	●		

● Total Support; ● Partial Support; ○ No Support.

Focusing on Hypotheses 3, we found fully support for the positive relationship between self-efficacy and job search behaviours (H_{3a}) on the overall model and OPC model. However, non-OPC group revealed the inverse relationship, presenting a negative slope between both variables, thus not confirming our hypothesis. Regarding our mediated relationships, H_{3b} was found to be fully supported in all models, meaning self-efficacy does mediate the relationship between psychological capital and

job search behaviours. By contrast, the mediated relationship of self-efficacy between anxiety and JSB (H_{3c}) did not found support in any of our models. Finally, the mediation role of self-efficacy on depression relationship with JSB (H_{3d}) was supported only on non-OPC group, not finding support in any of the other two conditions.

Lastly, Hypothesis 4 mentioned that there is a moderating effect of outplacement over the magnitude of associations found previously. Our results suggest that H_{1a} and H_{3a} are two of our hypotheses which reveal a different support from one condition to another. Indeed, the negative association of cognitive reappraisal with anxiety and depression (H_{1a}) was one of the relationships where we found a significant moderation effect of outplacement (both for anxiety and depression), corroborating the findings of different support on this specific hypothesis. The same goes for H_{3a} whose results revealed also that outplacement acts as moderator of SE and JSB's relationship, explaining the different support each one of the groups showed in that hypothesis. Concerning this, one should note that results in OPC group follow the hypothesized direction, i.e., self-efficacy having a positive effect on JSB. Overall, we found a partial support for H_4 once only some of our model's relationships suggest a moderator role of outplacement.

In the sections below we will discuss the findings of this investigation as well as their implications for both research and practice. Lastly, we will summarize the limitations of our study and, posteriorly, present suggestions for future research on the subject of job search and, more specifically, on outplacement.

Discussion and Implications of the Results

Overall, our most relevant findings can be divided between each of our research model variables. First, Psycap maintained almost the same path coefficients and effect sizes in both OPC and non-OPC groups, presenting a positive significant relationship with antecedent cognitive reappraisal as well as self-efficacy and job search behaviours and, at the same time, revealed no relationship with expressive suppression. This absence of outplacement's impact could be explained by considering this variable a dispositional one, meaning this psychological capital is based on intrinsic resources the person has on that specific positive psychological state of development (Luthans, 2007), no matter the circumstances one is experiencing. Indeed, long is the discussion whether Psycap is a state or trait-like construct. Luthans, Youssef and Avolio (2007) admit that although states and traits are often considered as independent and dichotomous categories of constructs, authors rather interpret "states and traits along a continuum largely determined by the relative degrees of stability in measurement and openness to change and development" (Luthans, Youssef & Avolio, 2007, p. 543). Another explanation might be that resilience, the "developable capacity to rebound or bounce back from adversity, conflict, failure, or even positive events, progress, and increased responsibility" (Luthans, 2002, p. 702), considered to be the most positive resource one can have when navigating through difficult times could be, in our consideration, one of the aspects that equilibrated the discrepancy between outplacement and non-outplacement respondents. Indeed,

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whoever had good results on Psycap evidence high resilience so, no matter the circumstances, more easily will surpass tough situations - as, for instance, being unemployed, independently of having OPC support or not.

Secondly, anxiety presents a positive significant relationship with expressive suppression on both models but, regarding cognitive reappraisal and job search behaviours - although in non-OPC they are negative - in OPC model those relationships are positive. This means that, within OPC respondents, more cognitive reappraisal will lead to more anxiety that, in turn, will lead to more job search behaviours. These positive relationships can be explained by CR activating anxiety that will, consequently, act as an action booster thence the strong positive relationship between anxiety with job search behaviours in OPC model. Indeed, it is mainly this mentioned relationship that differentiates the explanatory power of JSB in non-OPC model from the OPC one, being of 9% and 23%, respectively. One interesting note is that the means of this variable on each model are not different though ($M_{\text{Non-OPC}} = 1.23$ and $M_{\text{OPC}} = 1.22$), meaning that the variance of results is not on the degree of anxiety but on how it is created and potentiated. Our assumption is that, when part of an outplacement program, anxiety is targeted towards creating the need of job search, then resulting in more active behaviours toward that goal. It would be important here to further study and uncover the psycho-social processes that turn anxiety into an enabler or a paralyzer to JSB. For instance, one of the major individual differences when dealing with anxiety on this process is the strategy of type of coping used. For example, according to Leana and Feldman (1991), the ones that, when unemployed, rely more on *symptom-focused* coping strategies - with the objective of simply alleviate stress and anxiety but not to address the problem directly as, for example, seeking formal support – have more difficulty initiating job search activities (Leana & Feldman, 1991).

Thirdly, depression showed expected results regarding its relationship with emotional antecedent variables – being negatively related with cognitive reappraisal on both comparable models and positively related with expressive suppression also on both -, however, when focusing on JSB, depression presents to be fully mediated by self-efficacy on non-OPC model whereas, in OPC model, depression and SE are not even significantly related. In a comparison with anxiety, we can conclude also that depression is more sensitive to self-efficacy than anxiety.

Lastly, and probably one of the major contributions of this study, is regarding the relationship between self-efficacy and job search behaviours. Indeed, self-efficacy was found to be the foremost predictor of job search behaviour, presenting, on both groups, one of the strongest path coefficients as well as effect sizes within the respective models. Surprisingly, while in OPC model this relationship appears with a positive slope, in non-OPC model, findings suggest that when self-efficacy increases, job search behaviours diminish. This could be explained in two ways: firstly, respondents could be in a denial phase – predicted in the first phase of Aquilanti and Leroux's model (1999) -; on the other hand, one could feel so capable of finding a new job that it will result in a reduced number of active behaviours to achieve job search success.

Finally, and on a global note, it is important to highlight that there are no noteworthy differences between each group variable means (see Table 3.2) and by that we can conclude that the

variances between our two conditions are not originated by the magnitude of variables but instead they express the psychological process itself.

Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

This study represents, as far as we are aware, the first comprehensive attempt to comparatively analyze outplacement linked with emotional predictors of job search literature. Despite the increase in research on this topic over the past 30 years, sufficient studies were not available to compare the effects of OPC in this process.

Our research contributes to the growing literature of outplacement and job search in several ways. Besides, one should highlight that building a suitable sample for comparative purposes in OPC topic linked with psychological processes is far from being an easily achievable task, particularly in Portugal.

In this sense, we can enumerate some main advantages of this investigation. Firstly, the relevance of this topic. As we already mentioned, unemployment is an issue tackled on a daily-basis and in which social and political agenda are currently focused. Moreover, given the numbers of young unemployment, future research should apply this model in that specific population in order to encounter some distinctive variables that could be more accurate within younger people. This topic should be addressed especially knowing the psychological pressure with which a jobless individual is overloaded. This pressure will significantly increase in a context of an economic crisis, reason why Portugal, for its structural unemployment issue (European Commission, 2015a), has currently unique conditions to study this matter. Secondly, the non assumption of linearity in our methodology is something we think as valuable knowing the dynamics of psychology and considering the uneven change of events over time and space as well as the inconsistent responses that systems make when controlled (Guastello, 2001). Next, we highlight as an advantage to work with variables in a structural equation model that takes into consideration all variables simultaneously, controlling measurement errors. In fact, as Kock (2015) admits, "accuracy and statistical power seem to suffer particularly when very small samples and deviations from normality are observed in the context of small effect sizes" (Kock, 2015, p.10). Therefore, WarpPLS software attempts to address this situation by providing an extensive set of features trying to uncover the maximum characteristics of those distributions, with complete information.

Although the contributions of the present study for literature on this topic, there are also some concerns. Firstly, sampling issues are especially relevant in a study that aims to expose and predict key variables in job search. Therefore, future research should apply this study to a bigger sample of respondents. In addition, the non-random nature of our sampling procedure - given the small percentage of companies that provide these services - prevented us from extrapolating results although some care was taken to avoid biases. Therefore, comparisons between participants of both groups revealed no regular differences in demographics. Indeed, control variables as age or length of unemployment period were tracked, suggesting that selection effects are unlikely to threaten the validity of our conclusions. Still in this topic it is important to emphasize that the contacted agencies,

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for reasons of anonymity, disclosed our questionnaire only with their former re-employed candidates, meaning that the majority of our outplacement respondents weren't currently unemployed.

The use of self-report measures as a mean of gather information is always uncertain and precarious regarding inflation among the variables, particularly in delicate topics such as emotions and unemployment. Thus, evaluate emotions in a past tense is always something liable to biases. On the other hand, job search behaviours are, in theory, objective outcomes and should be less susceptible to perceptual distortion (Wanberg, Watt, & Rumsey, 1996). Although the instruments used demonstrated a good consistency, different research designs (e.g., diary studies) could be applied in future research making it possible to take advantage of qualitative methods also. Indeed, a different research design could be considered where measures should be collected throughout the process of job search instead of retrospectively, although that may also interfere with the job search process (irrespectively if it is outplacement or non-outplacement) itself, preventing one from distinguishing its influence from the one the researchers themselves may be creating.

Another limitation might be that, despite our inclusion criteria stating that respondents should have no professional occupation and be looking for a job at the time of questioning or meet this condition in the past, we did not control, particularly within non-outplacement group, whether some of the respondents were voluntarily unemployed and seeking new employment opportunities, something that would have different effects on the emotional predictors studied (Kanfer, Wanberg, & Kantrowitz, 2001). Since these individuals face different challenges that may differ as a function of the context in which search is initiated, future research on this matter should conduct moderator analysis of sample type (job losers vs. employed job seekers).

As other future research suggestion, we consider that other variables should be tested and integrated in this model as, for instance, financial strain or employment commitment, once the amount of variance explained in our JSB variables is far from comfortable and thus future research could consider more variables with more explanation power. In addition, and being in the specter of an economic crisis, some economic measures should also be taken into account to better assess the impact of economic climate in job search.

Finally, although our data arises from the two main outplacement companies in the country, another limitation could be the numerous possibilities regarding OPC that our sample could have had (e.g. job interview training, group dynamics, etc). Although those differences that could persist within outplacement programs, the companies that participated in our OPC sample are recognized and credited internationally thus followed validated standards. However, future research should take into consideration the different types of outplacement support in order to accomplish a more complete vision in terms of the effectiveness of each type of outplacement service (e.g., support in building CV, psychological support, etc.) in each one of our predictor variables. Therefore, future research should pursue on identifying the best variables that outplacement agencies can enhance and train with their candidates so OPC could become an increasingly considered support by companies as well as an important help to jobless workers seeking a new employment opportunity.

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Conclusion

This comparative study aims to analyze the relationship between some emotion-linked variables within the process of finding a new professional occupation by offering a comparison between individuals who have currently no professional occupation and are looking for a job or have been in this condition in the past three years, being posteriorly divided by the kind of support they had while unemployed: formal support of outplacement or no structured support.

The present study contributes to the literature in the framework of job search by predicting an explanative model with comparative purposes in outplacement topic linked with psychological processes. Furthermore, and once we are studying dynamic processes, the non assumption of linearity in our methodology as well as the high control of measurement errors contributes indeed to reinforce the accuracy of our outcomes.

Our main findings suggest a partial moderating effect of outplacement, once it interacts with some relationships of our overall research model. Psychological capital was found to be a dispositional variable, not being significantly influenced by any of the conditions (OPC and non-OPC); anxiety and depression were found to be related with the more distal antecedents of job search behaviour that comprise emotional regulation, namely, cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression. The slope of those mentioned relationships meet our hypothesized premises, however, in outplacement model, cognitive reappraisal was found to positively interact with anxiety that, in turn, positively act on job search behaviours. Self-efficacy revealed to be the strongest predictor of job search as well as, in addition, mediator of psychological capital and, only in non-outplacement group, of depression's relationship with JSB.

For human resources, and organizations in general, the moderator role that outplacement occupied in our research model as well as the significant differences found on both groups in terms of associations between variables showed the impact that this type of formal support can have on individual's journey of finding a new occupation. This is even more imperative in a time when, given the currently numbers of unemployment, companies should be cautious and accurate on the kind of services they provide, in order to diminish lawsuits and legitimize OPC has an human resources activity, associating it with a perception of social responsibility.

For outplacement companies, the finding of self-efficacy being the foremost predictor of job search encourages outplacement counselors focusing on strategies which stimulate one's self-efficacy. The interpretation of the differences between groups with formal support *versus* no support being based not on specific variables but, instead, on the psychological process of job search itself is something we believe to be an important tool for OPC companies once they should work on the individual journey between phases of each jobless client rather than on some specific parts of the process. In addition, the courses in which anxiety is re-targeted to act as an action motor to accomplish job search success are also an important issue to be further analyzed, once it could be decisive in the possibility of becoming employed.

Further investigation is needed in order to better understand the emotional key variables that precede job search behaviours as well as the type of relationships between them. For that, a bigger

sample and different research designs are necessary as well as the integration of other variables in this model increasing the range of predictors measured. It should be also considered its application in specific populations, such as younger active population, in order to find distinctive variables that could increase this model's explanation power. In conclusion, there are still different features on job search topic that remain undiscovered, especially on the role of emotional variables within this psychological process, so, in that sense, we look forward to the advances on this relevant issue of unemployment linked with job search formal support on this area of research or even in Portugal's social and political agenda.

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Appendixes

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Appendix A

Questions displayed to the participants and analyzed in this study

Present

Participação no Mercado de Trabalho

No âmbito de uma dissertação no Mestrado em Psicologia Social e das Organizações do ISCTE – Instituto Universitário de Lisboa, este estudo pretende compreender as melhores práticas na facilitação da procura de emprego e dirige-se somente a pessoas que estejam ou já estiveram **sem ocupação remunerada e à procura de emprego**.

A sua participação é muito importante. Ao responder às questões, procure ser o mais honesto possível. Tenha em atenção que não existem respostas certas ou erradas, apenas interessa a sua opinião. A duração estimada para o preenchimento do questionário é de 10 minutos.

Os dados recolhidos serão utilizados exclusivamente para fins académicos. Todos os dados são tratados de forma agregada e toda a informação é confidencial.

Caso tenha alguma questão sobre este estudo, poderá contactar-nos através do endereço mmgra1@iscte-iul.pt

Muito obrigado pela sua colaboração!

Identifique, por favor, o último período em que esteve sem ocupação remunerada (desempregado/a) e ativamente à procura de um novo emprego:

- Encontro-me atualmente à procura de novo emprego
- No ano civil passado (2014)
- Há dois anos (2013)
- Há três anos (2012)
- Outro período. Qual?

Para esse **período de procura de emprego**, indique com que recursos conta ou contou (escolha todas as que se apliquem):

- Serviços do centro de emprego
- Programa de Outplacement
- Sem qualquer apoio na procura de emprego
- Outra situação. Qual?

(*anxiety and depression*) Leia com atenção todas as frases e indique a resposta que melhor corresponde ao que tem sentido na última semana. Não demore muito tempo a pensar nas respostas. A sua reação imediata a cada frase será provavelmente mais exata do que uma resposta muito refletida.

	Nunca	De vez em quando, ocasionalmente	Muitas vezes	A maior parte das vezes
1. Sinto-me tenso/a ou contraído/a				
2. Continuo a ter prazer nas mesmas coisas de antes.				
3. Tenho uma sensação de medo como se algo de terrível estivesse para acontecer				

EMOTIONAL PROCESSES IN JOB SEARCH

4. Sou capaz de rir e de ver o lado divertido das situações				
5. Tenho a cabeça cheia de preocupações.				
6. Sinto-me bem-disposto.				
7. Sou capaz de estar à vontade e de me sentir relaxado.				
8. Sinto-me lento.				
9. Por vezes fico tão assustado que até sinto um aperto no estômago.				
10. Perdi o interesse em cuidar do meu aspeto.				
11. Sinto-me impaciente e não consigo estar parado.				
12. Penso com prazer nas coisas futuras.				

(*emotional regulation*) Gostaríamos de lhe colocar algumas questões acerca da sua vida emocional, em particular como controla (isto é, como regula e gere) as suas emoções. Para cada item, indique por favor o seu grau de concordância:

	1 = Discordo totalmente	2	3	4 = Neutro	5	6	7 = Concordo totalmente
1. Quando quero sentir mais emoções positivas (como alegria ou contentamento), <i>mudo o que estou a pensar.</i>							
2. Guardo as minhas emoções para mim próprio.							
3. Quando quero sentir menos emoções <i>negativas</i> (como tristeza ou raiva) <i>mudo o que estou a pensar.</i>							
4. Quando estou a sentir emoções <i>positivas</i> , tenho cuidado para não as expressar.							
5. Quando estou perante uma situação stressante, forço-me a pensar sobre essa mesma situação, de uma forma que me ajude a ficar calmo							
6. Eu controlo as minhas emoções <i>não as expressando.</i>							
7. Quando quero sentir mais emoções <i>positivas</i> , eu <i>mudo a forma como estou a pensar</i> acerca da situação							
8. Eu controlo as minhas emoções modificando a forma de pensar acerca da situação em que me encontro.							
9. Quando estou a experienciar <i>emoções negativas</i> , faço tudo para não as expressar.							
10. Quando quero sentir menos <i>emoções negativas</i> , <i>mudo a forma como estou a pensar</i> acerca da situação.							

(*psychological capital*) Antecipe a situação em que já se encontra numa nova posição profissional. Indique até que ponto concorda que as seguintes afirmações descreveriam o seu comportamento típico nesse contexto de trabalho.

	Discordo Totalmente	Discordo	Discordo Parcialmente	Concordo Parcialmente	Concordo	Concordo Totalmente
1. Sentir-me-ia confiante ao representar a minha área de trabalho em reuniões com a gestão da organização.						
2. Sentir-me-ia confiante ao contribuir para as discussões sobre a estratégia da organização.						
3. Sentir-me-ia confiante a apresentar informação a um grupo de colegas.						
4. Se me encontrasse numa situação difícil no trabalho, conseguiria pensar em muitas formas de sair dela.						

EMOTIONAL PROCESSES IN JOB SEARCH

5. Geralmente vejo-me como uma pessoa bem-sucedida no que faz no trabalho.						
6. Conseguiria pensar em muitas formas de alcançar os meus objetivos no trabalho.						
7. Geralmente alcanço os objetivos que defino para mim próprio/a.						
8. Seira capaz de ficar "por minha conta e risco" no trabalho, se fosse necessário.						
9. Em geral, lido com calma com as coisas mais stressantes no trabalho.						
10. Conseguiria ultrapassar os momentos difíceis no trabalho, porque já passei anteriormente por dificuldades.						
11. No que respeita ao trabalho, olho sempre para o lado positivo das coisas.						
12. No trabalho, sou otimista acerca do que me vai acontecer no futuro.						

(*job search self-efficacy*) Indique em que medida se sente confiante para realizar, com sucesso, cada uma das atividades descritas abaixo.

	1 = Nada Confiante	2	3	4	5 = Totalmente Confiante
1. Criar uma boa impressão e fazer-se entender numa entrevista.					
2. Contactar e persuadir os empregadores para o/a considerar para o emprego.					
3. Fazer uma boa candidatura ou CV.					
4. Recorrer a amigos ou outros contactos para encontrar oportunidades de emprego promissoras.					
5. Recorrer a amigos ou outros contactos para descobrir empresas que precisem das suas competências.					
6. Fazer uma lista das suas as suas competências que podem ser usadas para procurar um emprego.					

(*behaviour*) Indique agora quanto tempo investiu **no último mês** em cada uma das atividades listadas.

	Tempo nenhum	Pouco tempo	Algum tempo	Bastante tempo	Muito tempo
1. Questionar ou ler sobre encontrar empregos					
2. Ler os classificados ou os anúncios de oferta de emprego					
3. Falar com ex-empregadores ou contactos profissionais sobre possíveis oportunidades					
4. Contactar agências de emprego					
5. Questionar potenciais empregadores					
6. Ir a entrevistas de emprego					

Em média, por mês, a quantas entrevistas de emprego tem ido?

Há quanto tempo, em meses, está à procura de um novo emprego?

Por quanto tempo (em meses) considera conseguir manter-se com as reservas/recursos financeiros que dispõe preservando o mesmo nível de vida?

No meu planeamento de atividades de procura de emprego, tenho contado com o apoio regular:

	Discordo Totalmente	Discordo	Discordo Parcialmente	Concordo Parcialmente	Concordo	Concordo Totalmente
De amigos(as)						
De familiares						
De antigos-colegas						

Indique o grau académico relativo à sua última formação:

- Até ao 9ºano
- 9ºano completo
- 12ºano completo
- Licenciatura
- Mestrado/MBA
- Doutoramento

Em que ano terminou o seu último ano completo?

Indique o seu sexo:

- Feminino
- Masculino

Que idade tem?

- Até 25 anos
- 26-35 anos
- 36-45 anos
- 46-55 anos
- 56-65 anos
- Mais de 65 anos

O questionário chegou ao fim.

Muito obrigada pela sua colaboração neste estudo.

Past Tense

Participação no Mercado de Trabalho

No âmbito de uma dissertação no Mestrado em Psicologia Social e das Organizações do ISCTE – Instituto Universitário de Lisboa, este estudo pretende compreender as melhores práticas na facilitação da procura de emprego e dirige-se somente a pessoas que estejam ou já estiveram **sem ocupação remunerada e à procura de emprego**.

A sua participação é muito importante. Ao responder às questões, procure ser o mais honesto possível. Tenha em atenção que não existem respostas certas ou erradas, apenas interessa a sua opinião. A duração estimada para o preenchimento do questionário é de 10 minutos.

Os dados recolhidos serão utilizados exclusivamente para fins académicos. Todos os dados são tratados de forma agregada e toda a informação é confidencial.

Caso tenha alguma questão sobre este estudo, poderá contactar-nos através do endereço mmgra1@iscte-iul.pt

Muito obrigado pela sua colaboração!

Identifique, por favor, o último período em que esteve sem ocupação remunerada (desempregado/a) e ativamente à procura de um novo emprego:

- Encontro-me atualmente à procura de novo emprego
- No ano civil passado (2014)
- Há dois anos (2013)
- Há três anos (2012)
- Outro período. Qual?

Para esse **período de procura de emprego**, indique com que recursos conta ou contou (escolha todas as que se apliquem):

- Serviços do centro de emprego
- Programa de Outplacement
- Sem qualquer apoio na procura de emprego
- Outra situação. Qual?

(*anxiety and depression*) **Reporte-se a esse período de procura de emprego.** Leia com atenção todas as frases e indique a resposta que melhor corresponde ao que tem sentido na última semana. Não demore muito tempo a pensar nas respostas. A sua reação imediata a cada frase será provavelmente mais exata do que uma resposta muito refletida.

	Nunca	De vez em quando, ocasionalmente	Muitas vezes	A maior parte das vezes
1. Sentia-me tenso/a ou contraído/a				
2. Continuava a ter prazer nas mesmas coisas de antes.				
3. Tinha uma sensação de medo como se algo de terrível estivesse para acontecer				
4. Era capaz de rir e de ver o lado divertido das situações				
5. Tinha a cabeça cheia de preocupações.				
6. Sentia-me bem-disposto.				

EMOTIONAL PROCESSES IN JOB SEARCH

7. Era capaz de estar à vontade e de me sentir relaxado/a.				
8. Sentia-me lento.				
9. Por vezes ficava tão assustado/a que até sentia um aperto no estômago.				
10. Perdi o interesse em cuidar do meu aspeto.				
11. Sentia-me impaciente e não conseguia estar parado/a.				
12. Pensava com prazer nas coisas futuras.				

(*emotional regulation*) Gostaríamos de lhe colocar algumas questões acerca da sua vida emocional, em particular como controlou (isto é, como regula e gere) as suas emoções **nessa época**. Para cada item, indique por favor o seu grau de concordância:

	1 = Discordo totalmente	2	3	4 = Neutro	5	6	7 = Concordo totalmente
1. Quando queria sentir mais emoções positivas (como alegria ou contentamento), mudava o que estava a pensar.							
2. Guardava as minhas emoções para mim próprio.							
3. Quando queria sentir menos emoções negativas (como tristeza ou raiva) mudava o que estava a pensar.							
4. Quando estava a sentir emoções positivas, tinha cuidado para não as expressar.							
5. Quando estava perante uma situação stressante, forçava-me a pensar sobre essa mesma situação, de uma forma que me ajudasse a ficar calmo							
6. Eu controlava as minhas emoções não as expressando.							
7. Quando queria sentir mais emoções positivas, eu mudava a forma como estava a pensar acerca da situação							
8. Eu controlava as minhas emoções modificando a forma de pensar acerca da situação em que me encontrava.							
9. Quando estava a experienciar emoções negativas, fazia tudo para não as expressar.							
10. Quando queria sentir menos emoções negativas, mudava a forma como estava a pensar acerca da situação.							

(*psychological capital*) Recorde-se agora do momento em que encontrou uma nova posição profissional. Indique até que ponto concorda que as seguintes afirmações descrevem o seu comportamento típico nesse contexto de trabalho.

	Discordo Totalmente	Discordo	Discordo Parcialmente	Concordo Parcialmente	Concordo	Concordo Totalmente
1. Sentia-me confiante ao representar a minha área de trabalho em reuniões com a gestão da organização.						
2. Sentia-me confiante ao contribuir para as discussões sobre a estratégia da organização.						
3. Sentia-me confiante a apresentar informação a um grupo de colegas.						
4. Encontrando-me numa situação difícil no trabalho, conseguia pensar em muitas formas de sair dela.						
5. Geralmente via-me como uma pessoa bem-sucedida no que faz no trabalho.						
6. Conseguia pensar em muitas formas de alcançar os meus objetivos no trabalho.						

EMOTIONAL PROCESSES IN JOB SEARCH

7. Geralmente alcançava os objetivos que defino para mim próprio/a.						
8. Era capaz de ficar “por minha conta e risco” no trabalho, se fosse necessário.						
9. Em geral, lidava com calma com as coisas mais stressantes no trabalho.						
10. Conseguia ultrapassar os momentos difíceis no trabalho, porque já tinha passado anteriormente por dificuldades.						
11. No que respeita ao trabalho, via sempre para o lado positivo das coisas.						
12. No trabalho, era otimista acerca do que me ia acontecer no futuro.						

(*job search self-efficacy*) **Nessa época de procura de emprego**, indique em que medida se sente confiante para realizar, com sucesso, cada uma das atividades descritas abaixo.

	1 = Nada Confiante	2	3	4	5 = Totalmente Confiante
1. Criar uma boa impressão e fazer-se entender numa entrevista.					
2. Contactar e persuadir os empregadores para o/a considerar para o emprego.					
3. Fazer uma boa candidatura ou CV.					
4. Recorrer a amigos ou outros contactos para encontrar oportunidades de emprego promissoras.					
5. Recorrer a amigos ou outros contactos para descobrir empresas que precisem das suas competências.					
6. Fazer uma lista das suas competências que podem ser usadas para procurar um emprego.					

(*behaviour*) Indique agora **quanto tempo investia por mês** em cada uma das atividades listadas.

	Tempo nenhum	Pouco tempo	Algum tempo	Bastante tempo	Muito tempo
Questionar ou ler sobre encontrar empregos					
Ler os classificados ou os anúncios de oferta de emprego					
Falar com ex-empregadores ou contactos profissionais sobre possíveis oportunidades					
Contactar agências de emprego					
Questionar potenciais empregadores					
Ir a entrevistas de emprego					

Em média, por mês, a quantas entrevistas de emprego ia?

Há quanto tempo, em meses, esteve à procura de um novo emprego?

Desde o início do período de procura de emprego, por quanto tempo (em meses) considerava conseguir manter-se com as reservas/recursos financeiros que dispõe preservando o mesmo nível de vida?

No meu planeamento de atividades de procura de emprego, contei com o apoio regular:

EMOTIONAL PROCESSES IN JOB SEARCH

	Discordo Totalmente	Discordo	Discordo Parcialmente	Concordo Parcialmente	Concordo	Concordo Totalmente
De amigos(as)						
De familiares						
De antigos-colegas						

Indique o grau acadêmico relativo à sua última formação:

- Até ao 9ºano
- 9ºano completo
- 12ºano completo
- Licenciatura
- Mestrado/MBA
- Doutoramento

Em que ano terminou o seu último ano completo?

Indique o seu sexo:

- Feminino
- Masculino

Que idade tem?

- Até 25 anos
- 26-35 anos
- 36-45 anos
- 46-55 anos
- 56-65 anos
- Mais de 65 anos

O questionário chegou ao fim.
Muito obrigada pela sua colaboração neste estudo.

Appendix B

Output of the translation process for the measures in the study

PsyCap	
1. I feel confident in representing my work area in meetings with management.	1. Sinto-me confiante ao representar a minha área de trabalho em reuniões com a gestão da organização.
2. I feel confident contributing to discussions about the company's strategy.	2. Sinto-me confiante ao contribuir para as discussões sobre a estratégia da organização
3. I feel confident presenting information to a group of colleagues.	3. Sinto-me confiante a apresentar informação a um grupo de colegas.
4. If I should find myself in a jam at work, I could think of many ways to get out of it.	4. Se me encontrasse numa situação difícil no trabalho, conseguiria pensar em muitas formas de sair dela.
5. Right now I see myself as being pretty successful at work.	5. Neste momento, vejo-me como uma pessoa bem-sucedida no trabalho.
6. I can think of many ways to reach my current work goals.	6. Consigo pensar em muitas formas de alcançar os meus objetivos no trabalho.
7. At this time, I am meeting the work goals that I have set for myself.	7. Neste momento, estou a alcançar os objetivos profissionais que defini para mim próprio(a).
8. I can be "on my own" so to speak at work if I have to.	8. Sou capaz de ficar "por minha conta e risco" no trabalho, se for necessário.
9. I usually take stressful things at work in stride.	9. Em geral, lido com calma com as coisas mais stressantes no trabalho.
10. I can get through difficult times at work because I've experienced difficulty before.	10. Consigo ultrapassar os momentos difíceis no trabalho, porque já passei anteriormente por dificuldades.
11. I always look on the bright side of things regarding my job.	11. No que respeita ao meu trabalho, olho sempre para o lado positivo das coisas.
12. I'm optimistic about what will happen to me in the future as it pertains to work.	12. No meu trabalho, sou otimista acerca do que me vai acontecer no futuro.
ERQ	
1. When I want to feel more <i>positive</i> emotion (such as joy or amusement), I <i>change what I'm thinking about</i> .	1. Quando quero sentir mais emoções positivas (como alegria ou contentamento), mudo o que estou a pensar.
2. I keep my emotions to myself.	2. Guardo as minhas emoções para mim próprio.
3. When I want to feel less <i>negative</i> emotion (such as sadness or anger), I <i>change what I'm thinking about</i> .	3. Quando quero sentir menos emoções negativas (como tristeza ou raiva) mudo o que estou a pensar.
4. When I am feeling <i>positive</i> emotions, I am careful not to express them.	4. Quando estou a sentir emoções positivas, tenho cuidado para não as expressar.
5. When I'm faced with a stressful situation, I make myself <i>think about it</i> in a way that helps me stay calm.	5. Quando estou perante uma situação stressante, forço-me a pensar sobre essa mesma situação, de uma forma que me ajude a ficar calmo
6. I control my emotions by <i>not expressing</i>	6. Eu controlo as minhas emoções não as expressando.

them.

7. When I want to feel more <i>positive</i> emotion, I <i>change the way I'm thinking</i> about the situation.	7. Quando quero sentir mais emoções positivas, eu mudo a forma como estou a pensar acerca da situação
8. I control my emotions by <i>changing the way I think</i> about the situation I'm in.	8. Eu controlo as minhas emoções modificando a forma de pensar acerca da situação em que me encontro.
9. When I am feeling <i>negative</i> emotions, I make sure not to express them.	9. Quando estou a experienciar emoções negativas, faço tudo para não as expressar.
10. When I want to feel less <i>negative</i> emotion, I <i>change the way I'm thinking</i> about the situation.	10. Quando quero sentir menos emoções negativas, mudo a forma como estou a pensar acerca da situação.

Job Search Self Efficacy

1. How confident they felt about being able to do the following things successfully:	1. Indique em que medida se sente confiante para realizar, com sucesso, cada uma das atividades descritas abaixo:
2. Make the best impression and get points across in an interview	2. Criar uma boa impressão e fazer-se entender numa entrevista
3. Contact and persuade employers to consider them for the job	3. Contactar e persuadir os empregadores para o/a considerar para o emprego
4. Complete a good job-application or resume	4. Fazer uma boa candidatura ou curriculum vitae
5. Use friends or other contacts to discover promising job-openings	5. Recorrer a amigos ou outros contactos para encontrar oportunidades de emprego promissoras.
6. Use friends and other contacts to find out about employers that need their skills	6. Recorrer a amigos ou outros contactos para descobrir empresas que precisem das suas competências.
7. Make a good list of all their skills that can be used to find a job	7. Fazer uma lista das suas competências relevantes para procurar um emprego

Job Search Behaviours

1. Make inquiries/read about getting a job	1. Questionar ou ler sobre encontrar emprego
2. Read classified/help wanted advertisements	2. Ler os classificados ou os anúncios de oferta de emprego
3. Talking with former employers or business acquaintants about possible opportunities	3. Falar com ex-empregadores ou contactos profissionais sobre possíveis oportunidades
4. Contact employment agencies	4. Contactar agências de emprego
5. Make inquiries to prospective employers	5. Questionar potenciais empregadores
6. Go on a job interview	6. Ir a entrevistas de emprego